REFERENCE BOOK

AMRAVATI DISTRICT GAZETTEER

MAHARASHTRA STATE GAZETTEERS

Government of Maharashtra

AMRAVATI DISTRICT

(REVISED EDITION)

BOMBAY
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PREFACE

THE AMRAVATI DISTRICT GAZETTEER WAS PUBLISHED IN 1911. The volume was edited by Mr. S. V. Fitzgerald and Mr. A. E. Nelson. This revised edition has been prepared by the Gazetteers Department, Government of Maharashtra, under the guidance of an Editorial Board. The following are the present members of the Editorial Board:—

My thanks are due to Dr. B. G. Kunte. M.A., Ph.D. (Economics), Ph.D. (History), Joint Editor, for his assistance throughout the work and who besides has contributed to the chapter on History. My thanks are also due to Shri K. V. Yohannan, B.A.,LL.B., Superintendent, Shri D. C. Deo, M.A., Shri K. K. Chaudhari, M.A., Shri V. N. Gurav, M.A., Shri M. H. Ranade, B.A., Shri M. N. Kawade, M.A., Shri S. K. Purohit, B.A., and Shri D. L. Naik, B.A., Research Assistants, and other members of the staff for their valuable assistance in the preparation and publication of this Volume.

I will be failing in my duty, if I do not express my thanks to Dr. P. N. Chopra, M.A., Ph.D., Editor, District Gazetteers and the staff of the Central Gazetteers Unit, Union Ministry of Education, New Delhi for their effective role in planning and co-ordinating the work of preparation of the District Gazetteers. The Unit scrutinized the draft of this volume with great care and made several helpful suggestions with a view to improving the standard and quality of the publication. It may also be mentioned here that a portion of the expenditure incurred on the compilation and printing of the District Gazetteers is being met by the Government of India.

Shri J. W. D'Souza, Director, Government Printing, Stationery and Publications, Bombay, and Shri S. R. Desai, Manager and his staff in the Government Press, Nagpur, also deserve my thanks for the execution of the printing work of this Volume.

BOMBAY:
August 1968.

P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
Executive Editor and Secretary.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

AMRAVATI DISTRICT, with the rest of the Berar was assigned to the East India Company by the Nizam following the treaty of 1853. After the province was assigned to the Company, it was divided into two districts, South Berar with its headquarters at Hingoli and North Berar with headquarters at Buldhana. The latter district included the whole Payanghat Valley, i.e., the present Amravati district, the northern half of Akola and of Buldhana. Later, Hingoli with the neighbouring region was restored to the Nizam, and North Berar was reconstituted into East Berar with headquarters at Akola.

In 1864 the district of Yeotmal was separated from Amravati. In 1867 the district of Ellichpur which at first included the tahsil of Morshi, subsequently restored to Amravati, was formed.

In 1903 the Treaties of Assignment were superseded by an agreement under which the Nizam leased Berar to the Government of India in perpetuity. Berar was joined to the Central Provinces in 1903 to form the enlarged province of the Central Provinces and Berar.

With the reorganisation of States in 1956, Amravati district, along with the other districts of the Vidarbha region, was included in the then Bombay State Since the bifurcation of the Bombay State into Maharashtra and Gujarat in 1960, Amravati, along with the other districts of Vidarbha is an integral part of Maharashtra

In October 1867, the Government of India issued orders for the compilation of a Gazetteer of the Hyderabad Assigned Districts commonly called Berar.

In 1870 was compiled the Gazetteer for the Hyderabad Assigned Districts which was edited by A. C. Lyall, Commissioner of West Berar. The volume, in its 'District Selections' contained a few pages on the then Amravati and Ellichpur districts.

The Gazetteers for the various districts of the Central Provinces were compiled in the beginning of this century and the first Amravati District Gazetteer which was edited by S. V. Fitzgerald, Assistant Commissioner and A. E. Nelson, Superintendent of Gazetteer, was published in 1911.

In Bombay Presidency as early as 1843 an attempt was made to arrange for the preparation of Statistical Accounts of the different districts. The following extracts[1] will be found interesting as giving an idea of the intention of those who desired to have such Accounts compiled:—

"Government called on the Revenue Commissioners to obtain from all the Collectors as part of their next Annual Report, the fullest available information regarding their districts. . . . Government remarked that, as Collectors and their Assistants during the large portion of the year moved about the district in constant and intimate communication with all classes, they possessed advantages which no other public officers enjoyed of acquiring a full knowledge of the condition of the country, the causes of progress or retrogradation, the good measures which require to be fostered and extended, the evil measures which call for abandonment, the defects in existing institutions which require to be remedied, and the nature of the remedies to be applied. Collectors also, it was observed, have an opportunity of judging of the effect of British rule on the condition and character of the people, on their caste prejudices, and on their superstitious observances. They can trace any alteration for the better or worse in dwellings, clothing and diet, and can observe, the use of improved implements of husbandry or other crafts, the habits of locomotion, the state of education, particularly among the higher classes whose decaying means and energy under our most levelling system compared with that of preceding Governments will attract their attention. Finally they can learn how far existing village institutions are effectual to their end and may be made available for self-Government and in the management of local taxation for local purposes."

"In obedience to these orders, reports were received from the Collectors of Ahmedabad, Broach, Kaira, Thana and Khandesh Some of the reports contained much interesting information. These five northern reports were practically the only result of the Circular Letter of 1843".

The matter does not seem to have been pursued any further.

In October 1867, the Secretary of State for India desired the Bombay Government to take concrete steps for compilation of a Gazetteer of the Presidency on the model of the Gazetteer prepared during that year for the Central Provinces. The Government of Bombay then requested some of its responsible officials to submit a scheme for carrying into effect the orders of the Secretary of State, and in 1868, appointed the Bombay Gazetteer Committee to supervise and direct the preparation of the Gazetteer. After a few organisational experiments the responsibility was finally entrusted to Mr. James M. Cambell of the Bombay Civil Service, who commenced the compilation in 1874 and completed the series in 1884. The actual publication, however, of these volumes was spread over a period of 27 years between 1877 and 1904 in which year the last General Index Volume was published.

Though a Gazetteer literally means only a geographical index or a geographical dictionary, the scope of this particular compilation was much wider. It included not only a description of the physical and natural features of a region but also a broad narrative of the social, political, economic and cultural life of the people living in that region. The purpose which

[1]Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat), pp. iii and iv.

the Gazetteer was intended to serve was made clear in the following remarks of Sir William Hunter, Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India, when his opinion was sought on a draft article on Dharwar District in 1871. He said:—

"My own conception of the work is that, in return for a couple of days' reading, the Account should give a new Collector, a comprehensive, and, at the same time, a distinct idea of the district which he has been sent to administer. Mere reading can never supersede practical experience in the district administration But a succinct and well-conceived district account is capable of antedating the acquisition of such personal experience by many months and of both facilitating and systematising a Collectors' personal enquiries. . . . But in all cases a District Account besides dealing with local specialities should furnish a historical narration of its revenue and expenditure since it passed under the British rule, of the sums which we have taken from it in taxes, and of the amount which we have returned to it in the protection of property and person and the other charges of Civil Government."[1]

The Gazetteer was thus intended to give a complete picture of the district to men who were entire strangers to India and its people but who as members of the ruling race carried on their shoulders the responsibility of conducting its administration.

The Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency had 27 Volumes, some split up into two or three parts, making a total of 35 books including the General Index which was published in 1904. Some of the volumes were of a general nature and were not confined to the limits of a particular district. For example, Volume I dealt with History and was split up into two parts, one dealing with Gujarat and the other with Konkan, Deccan and Southern Maratha country; Volume IX was devoted to the population of Gujarat and contained two parts, one describing Hindus and the other Musalmans and Parsis; but there was no corresponding volume devoted to the population of Maharashtra or Karnatak; Volume XXV gave an account of the Botany of the area covered in the whole Presidency. The remaining volumes dealt with various districts of the Presidency and with what were then known as Native States attached to the Bombay Presidency. Some of the District Volumes had two or three parts, for example, those of Thana, Kanara, Poona and Bombay. On the other hand, there was only one combined volume for some districts as for example, Surat and Broach, and Kaira and Panch Mahals.

The scheme of the contents was more or less the same for all the District Volumes though the accounts of particular items varied considerably from district to district. Information was collected from Government offices and, in respect of

[1] Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency, Vol. I, Part I (History of Gujarat), p. vii.

social and religious practices, from responsible citizens. Eminent scholars, experts and administrators contributed articles on special subject.

This Gazetteer compiled over many decades ago had long become scarce and entirely out of print. It contained authentic and useful information on several aspects of life in a district and was considered to be of great value to the administrator, the scholar and the general reader. There was a general desire that there should be a new and revised edition of this monumental work. The then Government of Bombay, therefore, decided that the old Gazetteer should be revised and republished, and entrusted the work of revision to an Editorial Board specially created for that purpose in 1949. This volume has been prepared under the guidance of that Editorial Board by the Gazetteers Department, Government of Maharashtra. In view of the Reorganisation of States in 1956 and the coming into existence of the State of Maharashtra in 1960, areas for which no District Gazetteers had previously been compiled are taken up and new Distrtict Gazetteers are being compiled in accordance with the common pattern.

In the nature of things, after a lapse of over many decades after their publication, most of the statistical information contained in the old Gazetteer had become entirely out of date and had to be dropped altogether. In this edition an attempt has been made to give an idea of the latest developments whether in regard to the administrative structure or the economic set-up or in regard to social, religious and cultural trends. There are portions in the old Gazetteers bearing on archaeology and history which have the impress of profound scholarship and learning and their worth has not diminished by the mere passage of time. Even in their cases, however, some restatement is occasionally necessary in view of later investigations and new archaeological discoveries by scholars, and an attempt has been made to incorporate in this edition, the results of such subsequent research. The revision of old volumes has, in fact, meant an entire rewriting of most of the chapters and sections. In doing so, statistical and other information is collected from the relevant Departments of Government, and articles on certain specialised subjects are obtained from competent scholars. Every effort has been made to bring the information as up-do-date as possible. However, in a work like the Gazetteer where information on a large variety of subjects is included. some time-lag between the collection of information and the publication is inevitable.

In this dynamic world, circumstances and facts of life change, and so do national requirements and social values,

Such significant changes have taken place in India as in other countries during the last half a century, and more so after the advent of Independence in 1947. The general scheme and contents of this revised series of the Gazetteers have been adapted to the needs of altered conditions. There is inevitably some shift in emphasis in the presentation and interpretation of certain phenomena. For example, the weighted importance given to caste and community in the old Gazetteer cannot obviously accord with the ideological concepts of a secular democracy, though much of that data may have considerable interest from the functional, sociological or cultural point of view. What is necessary is a change in perspective in presenting that account so that it could be viewed against the background of a broad nationalism and the synthesis of a larger social life. It is also necessary to abridge and even to eliminate, elaborate details about customs and practices which no longer obtain on any extensive scale or which are too insignificant to need any elaboration. In the revised Gazetteer, therefore, only a general outline of the practices and customs of the main sections of the population has been given.

An important addition to the District Volume in this edition is the Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end which contains, in a tabulated form, useful information about every village and town in the district. The district map given in this edition is also fairly large and up-to-date.

The revised Gazetteers are published in two series:

1. *The General Series*: This comprises volumes on subjects which can best be treated for the State as a whole and not for the smaller area of a district. As at present planned, they will deal with Physical Features, Fauna, People and Their Culture, History, Language and Literature, Botany and Public Administration.

2. *The District Series*: This contains one volume for every district of the Maharashtra State. The information given in all the volumes will follow the same pattern, and the table of contents will more or less be the same for all the districts.

Diacritical marks to explain the pronunciation of names of places and of words in Indian languages have been used only in three chapters, namely, Chapter 2—History, Chapter 3—People and Chapter 19—Places and also in the Directory of Villages and Towns. In other chapters the current spellings have been retained. A key to the diacritical marks used is given at page 709.

BOMBAY : P. SETU MADHAVA RAO,
August 1968. *Executive Editor and Secretary.*

AMRAVATI

CHAPTER 1 — GENERAL*

CHAPTER 1.

General.

SITUATION

AMRAVATI DISTRICT LIES BETWEEN 20° 32' AND 21° 46' NORTH LATITUDE AND 76° 37' AND 78° 27' EAST LONGITUDE. It occupies an area of 12,149.7 square kilometres and has a population of 1,232,780, with 13 towns and 1,968 villages including 359 which are uninhabited according to the census of 1961. This district in the Nagpur Division is situated right in the centre of the northern border of the Maharashtra State. It is bounded on the north by Madhya Pradesh, for the greater part by Betul district, Nimar and Chhindwada on the north-west and north east having a lesser extent of common boundaries with the district. It is bounded on the east by the Nagpur and Wardha districts and on the south and south-west by the districts of Yeotmal, Akola and Buldhana. The name of the district is taken from that of the headquarters' town and is said to have been derived from the temple of Ambadevi situated there. The name Amravati meaning the abode of Immortals may also be traced from its association with Lord Krishna. The details of total area, cultivated area, the density of population and towns and villages are given in table No. 1.

*The section on geography (pp. 1—11) is contributed by Prof. K. Ramamurthy, Department of Geography, University of Poona.

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CHAPTER 1.

General.

RIVERS.

Purna.

boundary here lies along the base of the hills. It traverses across the plains of the district in a south-westerly direction dividing it into two halves, first through the Achalpur tahsil and then along the boundary between the Amravati and Daryapur tahsils. Then it turns due westwards forming the boundary of the district and continues further to join the Tapi in Nimar district. On the banks of the Purna are found a string of villages beginning from Vishroli near the foot of the Satpudas and at close intervals of less than 3 kilometres lower down from Deurwada, situated near the confluence with the Arna. The chief among them are Assegaon, Thugaon and Kholapur.

Pedhi.

The only important left bank tributary of the Purna is the Pedhi. It rises in the low hills near Rithpur and receives a number of small affluents both from the east and the west, the chief on the west being the Naghira river. The Pedhi flows in a general south-easterly course passing by Walgaon and Bhatkuli. After crossing the district boundary it turns and flows westwards and north-westwards to join the Purna at the point where the latter makes a very short sojourn outside the Amravati district into Akola.

Arna.

The first of the principal right bank affluents of the Purna is the Arna which emerges from the Satpuda hills in Betul district and flows in a south and south-easterly direction passing by Sirasgaon to join the Purna just below Deurwada.

Bodi

The next affluent is a small river known as the Bodi river, which after passing by Talegaon joins the Purna at Rajna.

Chandrabhaga.

With its affluents, the Pili or Bahramkasand on which is situated the village of Karasgaon, the Bichan river passing through Paratwada, the Sapan river passing through Achalpur, the Chandrabhaga river is a very important tributary flowing in a general south-westerly direction past Wasni, Khallar and Daryapur to join the Purna about a kilometre and a half below Dhamodi. The river rises just below the Vairat plateau and after receiving a number of small streams draining the southern slopes of the Chikhaldara plateau and the slopes of the Gawilgad plateau, flows in an easterly direction in a valley which forms a cultivated tract of about 2 kilometres in width breaking the continuity of the forested areas on either side. About 2½ km. south-west of Dhamangaon it turns southwards. The principal right bank affluent of the Chandrabhaga is the Bhuleshwari river which itself receives the Gangadari river, another Satpuda stream. The Bhuleshwari passes by Shindi Buzrug and Kokarda and meets the Chandrabhaga near Daryapur east of Babli.

Shahanur.

The westernmost tributary of the Purna of some importance within the district is the Shahanur river with its affluent, the Bordi. The Shahanur river rises in the Gawilgad hills near Jhira ghat and after a fairly long and winding course first eastwards and then south-eastwards enters the plains near Malkapur

Rivers.

and flows southwards passing by Anjangaon and turns south-westwards at Umri and continues in this direction to join the Purna beyond the border of the district.

Bordi.

Though the river Bordi flows for a major part of its course outside the district, it is joined by the combined waters of the Chansuri river and the Gaimuk which have their plain courses within the district.

Wardha.

The Wardha river rises to the east of Multai in Madhya Pradesh and has a long and tortuous course along the Satpuda hills. It forms the eastern boundary of the district and receives a number of short tributaries on its right flowing within the district. The Sakti river rises in Shendari reserved forest area in the Satpudas, and passing by Jarud and flowing southwards joins the Wardha. The Dhawagiri river rises in the Dabka reserved forest area and flows past Benoda and Loni before joining the Wardha.

Pak Nala.

The Pak Nala rises in the same Dabka forest area and receives, besides the Satpuda affluents, the drainage of the northern slopes of Lakhara hills, a detached mass south of the Satpudas Hiwarkhed is situated on the banks of this river. The Pak Nala Project on this river provides irrigation facilities to the area on the northern side of the Morshi-Warud road. The Kohi drains the southern slopes of the Lakhara hills into the Wardha.

Maru.

The Maru river rises south of Atner in Betul district and after a winding course in the Satpudas enters the district and flows in a general south-easterly course to join the Wardha, where the latter makes an abrupt right angular turn to continue the course of the Maru.

Narha.

The Narha river is a much smaller but important tributary of the Wardha. Morshi, the tahsil headquarters, is situated on its western bank.

Chargar.

The westernmost tributary of some size flowing from the Satpudas is the Chargar river having its source just east of the Wardha-Purna watershed, and flows past Chat Larki. Khed, and Udkhed with a general south-easterly direction parallel to the water divide and joins the Wardha at Bhambor. The river Chargar receives the Kasi river, a smaller stream flowing somewhat parallel to it on its western side from the north, and also the combined waters of the Dhaula, the Lendi and the Bharantakia from the Ner hills in the south-west. Ner Pingalai village is situated between the Lendi and the Bharantakia.

Minor Rivers.

There are several small streams flowing eastwards from the Wardha-Purna water divide into the Wardha river. Among them is the river Ner Pingalai on which are located Talegaon, Thakur and Tivsa. The Bor river passing by Kurha and Idarba river passing by Temburni, Virul and Anjansinghi river join together and flow into the Wardha. The Kolad-Dhangar river flowing

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Minor Rivers.

roughly parallel to the Wardha on its western side passes by Mangrul and joins it at Borgaon in the south-east corner of the district. The Chandrabhaga river (this should not be confused with the much larger one of the same name flowing by Daryapur) flows by Dattapur in an easterly direction and then turns southwards to join the Wardha outside the district. The last of the tributaries of the Wardha in the district is the Bemla which has only its middle course in the extreme southern part of the district, but is important as receiving a number of affluents flowing from the north, such as the Kholad and the Chandrabhaga (the third one in the district with the same name) flowing by Chandur Railway and the Kalamali.

Purna Wardha Water Divide.

The water divide between the Purna and the Wardha system of rivers (in fact this is the water divide between the Tapi flowing into the Arabian Sea and the Godavari flowing into the Bay of Bengal as the former two are only tributaries of the latter) begins in the district at the foot hills of the Satpudas and runs as a low divide of a little more than 360 metres in elevation in a general south-easterly direction with peaks on it rising to 404 metres east of Pohenkheda and to 435 metres in Ner hills. From the Ner hills it turns and runs in a south-westerly direction somewhat parallel to the Morshi-Amravati road with peak heights of 387 metres and 392 metres, and in the hills east of Amravati with peaks over 460 metres. The water divide continues in the south-westerly direction with a lower height (350 metres at Loni) and passes outside the district By comparing the levels of the beds of the Purna and the Wardha it is seen that the maximum relative relief is not generally more than 100 metres, indicative of post-mature stage of dissection. It may be mentioned here that the initial south-easterly course of the divide changing into a south-westerly trend is also reflected in the courses of the several tributaries of the Purna system within the district.

Tapi Tributaries.

As the highest hills of the Melghat are in its southern part the water divide between the south flowing tributaries of the Purna and the north flowing tributaries of the Tapi lies towards the southern part of the Melghat hills, so that the greater part of Melghat is drained northwards and north-eastwards towards the Tapi river. The more important among them are the Khursi, the Khandu, the Sipna, the Garga, the Dewal and the Dhulghat. The Khursi river takes its source on the eastern slopes of Katkumbh plateau and after a brief sojourn into the Betul district re-enters the district and flows in a north-westerly direction flowing close to the district boundary for some distance and then follows it for a while till it leaves it to flow northwards to join the Tapi. The Khandu rising near Khamla in Betul district enters the district to flow west of the Katkumbh plateau and has a fairly long and winding course in a general north-westerly direction cutting its bed deeply through the several ranges of hills, before joining the Tapi just outside the district. The Khapra has its source just

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Tapi Tributaries.

outside the district on the northern slopes of the Antarmal plateau of Betul district and has a similar winding course through the hills to join the Tapi outside the district. The Sipna rises very close to the source of the Khapra and has a similar long winding but westerly course towards the Tapi. But unlike the aforesaid rivers the Sipna has several flat stretches of land adjoining its middle and lower courses useful for the purposes of cultivation supporting such villages as Harisal, Chakarda and Duni. The Garga rises on the northern slopes of the Gawilgad ridge west of the Vairat plateau and is joined by the Kutumbi at Koha and has a general westerly and north-westerly course passing by Kalamkhar and Dhulghat to join the Tapi. This river is even more important than the Sipna, for the lower valley below Garga Malur is an extensive level area, richly cultivated, forming the Dharni plain which reaches up to Sipna on the north at Diwa. The Dewal and Dhulghat rivers are two smaller streams which have their sources in the Gawilgad ridge farther to the west of the others and have their lower plain courses near the Tapi.

ASPECTS OF REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY.

The district of Amravati may be broadly divided into two geographical divisions, the Melghat hilly area, a highly forested area of the Satpudas and the plains area or the Payinghat below it traversed by a number of streams flowing southwards from the Satpuda mountains mentioned above.

Melghat Division *

The first division comprises practically the whole of the Melghat tahsil covering an area of about 4,000 km². Of this 77 per cent is under tropical deciduous forests. This division may be further sub-divided into the following sub-regions:—(1) Gawilgad ridge, (2) the southern forest zone, (3) the northern forest zone, (4) upper Chandrabhaga valley, (5) the plains of Dharni and Bairagarh, and (6) the Katkumbh plateau.

The main ridge of the Gawilgad hills runs in an easterly and north-easterly direction through the southern part of the Melghat tahsil. It enters the district just west of Wan railway station with the heights of peaks about 750 metres increasing to over 820 metres south of Golai. About one kilometre north-west of Jhira on the Akot-Koha route it attains an elevation of 1,101 metres. From here it extends as a flat-topped ridge for about four kilometres and after a slight lowering at the pass, the main ridge continues north of the Shahanur river in a north-easterly direction with summit levels of 1,100 metres widening into the Vairat and Chikhaldara plateaus. Then it continues north of Chikhaldara plateau in a north-westerly direction passing through Nanagiri to Kukru (1.134 metres) in Betul district beyond the border. The highest summit on the ridge is Vairat (1,177.75 metres) sanctified by the temple of Vairateshwar. The flat plateau is able to sustain cultivation and the village of

*Besides personal observations, the material for this section is drawn from a very detailed account of Melghat by Dr. S. S. Padhye, published in Bombay Geographical Magazine, Vols. VIII-IX, 1961, pp. 37—49.

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ASPECTS OF REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY.

Melghat Division.

Vairat. Eight miles to the east is the Chikhaldara plateau 16 km.[2] in area and with a population of 1,338 persons (1961) constituting the town of Melghat. This was one of the two hill stations in the former Central Provinces, the other being Panchmarhi. After the merger of the Vidarbha region with Maharashtra, Chikhaldara has been developed as a holiday camp by the State Government. Chikhaldara consists of a smaller upper plateau in the west, and a larger lower plateau in the east. The upper plateau is always green with plenty of tree growth but the lower plateau is relatively bare.

Some three kilometres south of Chikhaldara plateau lies the Gawilgad fort on another plateau covering an extent of about one km.[2] now in ruins. The inside of the fort area has a plenty of grass growth which is cut by the Gawali folk of the adjoining villages for hay. The fort area is surrounded on all the sides except the north by precipitous slopes. On the north it is connected by a narrow ridge like feature with the Chikhaldara plateau. Besides Vairat and Chikhaldara, on the plateau of the Gawilgad ridge are some smaller villages such as Pastala and Nanagiri. A very remarkable feature of this ridge is that the descent from the relatively flat summit plateau is by a series of precipitous slopes one below the other separated by narrow steps of lesser gradients, most conspicuous on the slopes of the plateau of Vairat, Chikhaldara and Gawilgad fort area. From this main ridge the land slopes very steeply but irregularly through several minor ridges to the Amravati plains which begins at an altitude of 450 metres. These steep slopes are covered with tropical deciduous forests which have a drier appearance in summer than those on the north. North of the main ridge there is a succession of hills and valleys in a confused pattern clothed more luxuriantly than the southern part. Here the same deciduous species present a greener appearance even in summer, being the result of lesser gradients and probably also of the lesser degree of exposure to the sun from the south during a greater part of the year reducing the amount of loss of soil moisture by evaporation and of the greater amount of rainfall. For, the average annual rainfall is usually highest on the main ridge of the Gawilgad which amounts to 140 cm. The rainfall gradually decreases towards the north and west, the average annual rainfall at Dharni being 99.44 cm. It abruptly decreases towards the south of the main ridge. A majority of the rivers drain northwards and north-westwards towards the Tapi. The villages are located near these rivers and their tributaries but often at some distance from them on elevated ground on flat-topped areas. Apart from avoiding floods and slopes covered with thin soils, such a position affords freedom from frosts and heavy dews which damage the crops in lower areas. Agricultural areas are found in flat strips of land bordering the rivers especially the Garga and the Sipna in their lower courses, the Dharni plain connecting the two being the most extensive of this type. A smaller agricultural area is found adjoining the Tapi further north. The permanent water

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ASPECTS OF REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY.

Melghat Division.

table in these two areas is approximately 30 feet below the surface. Therefore there are numerous wells supporting a somewhat dense population. The Katkumbh plateau is another agricultural area situated to the east of the northern forest tract at a height of 820 metres, which is close to the continuing part of the Gawilgad ridge in Betul district. The plateau has moderate undulations with abundant gently sloping land and hence it supports a relatively dense population.

The second geographical division, viz., the Payinghat or the plain area, may be further sub-divided into the following sub-regions: —

(1) the Piedmont belt of light and medium black soils with abundant ground water supplies, sloping away from the Satpudas;

(2) the region of deep and fertile soils of the south-west, where the sub-soil water is very often saline;

(3) the regions of light red and medium black soils of Chandur and eastern Amravati; and

(4) stretches of fertile black soils adjoining the Wardha in southern Morshi and south-eastern Chandur tahsils.

Piedmont Sub-Region.

The zone sloping away from the Satpudas and traversed by innumerable sub-parallel streams flowing southwards from the hills, comprises the Morshi tahsil excluding the strip in the south-east adjoining the Wardha, the Achalpur tahsil excluding the southern third of it, and the northern part of Daryapur tahsil. Near the foot of the hills, the soils are coarse and reddish in colour, being derived from the debris washed from above, and are given over to jowar cultivation. Beyond this belt of coarse Piedmont debris slopes, the rain water which had percolated through them appears closer to the surface and there is an abundance of ground water supplies tapped by innumerable wells. Here the soils are medium in character and are well drained and therefore respond readily to irrigation. This has resulted in a remarkable development of a chain of large-sized villages and towns parallel to the base of the hills at a distance of about 5 to 10 kilometres, located on stream banks, e.g., Anjangaon-Surji, Pathrot, Achalpur, Karasgaon, Brahmanwada Thadi, Morshi, Jarud and Warud. Oranges, plantains, chillis and grapes are the favourite crops of this belt. In the Morshi tahsil in the eastern section of this sub-region orange cultivation is highly developed and the consequent economic prosperity based on this intensive type of garden cultivation is reflected in the large size of the villages and towns in this tahsil. Grapes, plantains and betel vines are the subsidiary garden crops. Near the western border of the Morshi tahsil west of Kolwihir this belt is interrupted by the Wardha-Purna water divide where canals are to be seen. To the west of the divide orange groves begin again in Sirasgaon Band, which is close to the town of Chandur Bazar. As the conditions are somewhat similar, orange cultivation has been newly introduced in the

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Piedmont Sub-Region.

western section also. Young orange groves can be seen round Achalpur town. Further west from Wadgaon to Pathrot chillis are widespread. In this western section double crops are usually raised based on well irrigation. Besides chillis, there is mixed cropping of jowar with black-gram or green-gram, or sometimes chillis are mixed with cambodia cotton, 6 lines of chillis with one line of cotton being a common type of mixture. Dhurras—bounding strips of land between adjacent fields—are very much narrowed as the land is highly valuable. In this sub-region the date (*shindi*) trees abound as natural vegetation especially on *nala* banks in response to good sub-soil water-supply. In fact the southern limit of this sub-region of plentiful sub-soil water can be readily located on the ground from the distribution of the date tree. Mango trees are also quite common here.

South-West Deep Black-Soil Region.

As we proceed farther away from the Satpudas, the depth of the black soil increases but wells become scarce partly due to the lowering of the water table and partly to prevalence of salinity in the sub-soil water. Consequently the ubiquitous date tree of the north practically disappears in this sub-region; the mango trees also become fewer, confined to areas where the sub-soil water is not salty. The southern half of the Daryapur tahsil, western Amravati and southern third of Achalpur tahsil are included in this sub-region. Though the sub-soil water is saline, the surface soils are exceedingly fertile and there are abundant crops of cotton, jowar and wheat throughout this area. Here jowar is grown even on the steeply inclining riverine slopes except where the top soils have been badly denuded by the gullying action of rain waters. On account of the high retentivity of moisture in these deep black soils, cotton plant remains green longer than usual and yields a superior fibre. This sub-region as a whole is not suitable for irrigation from wells as the fields on which well water is spread become saline and lose in fertility. This fact does not preclude the feasibility of canal irrigation from rivers having their sources outside this zone, which as a matter of fact, is being developed.

There are indeed some places such as Shingnapur and Nanded Buzrug where the sub-soil water is found to be free from salinity. It has been found out that by joining such spots free from salinity, others on these lines are also free of salinity which leads one to the conclusion that such salt-free strips are the result of the draining-off action by the waters of the former courses of rivers, which are not identifiable as such at present on the ground. This interesting hypothesis[1], when it is fully established by detailed field surveys, will lead to a detailed mapping of such old drainage courses, which will enable the authorities to give guidance to the agriculturists in their attempt to locate spots of sweet ground water for digging wells for irrigation.

[1] From information supplied by Shri S. A. Joshi, Agricultural Development Officer, Amravati Zilla Parishad.

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South-West Deep Black-Soil Region.

The villages in this sub-region though not so large as in the first sub-region are more numerous and more closely spaced, but again mostly confined to the banks of streams, sited on the outer side of their bends. It may be noted that these bends similating the meanders of mature streams are not the result of their own making, but the consequence of the previously existing flatness of the terrain.

Sub-Region of Light Red and Medium Black Soil of the East.

This sub-region comprises the eastern part of Amravati tahsil and a large part of Chandur tahsil. There are residual hills of varying heights forming the water divides between the Purna and Wardha rivers and their tributary streams. The soils range from light red of the interfluves to the medium black of the valleys. The larger villages are located along the line corresponding to the east edge of the detached interfluves in the centres of the valley depressions opening between them to the east, where there is maximum possibility of ground water supplies, e.g., Rajurvara, Tivsa, Mojhri, Kurha, Warha and Virul. Further to the east towards the Wardha river villages are fewer and smaller in size. Though garden cultivation is carried on in favoured spots, the light soils of this region are suitable only to such crops as bajri and groundnut.

Black Soil Stretches Along the Wardha

There are stretches of fertile black soils in south-eastern Morshi and southern Chandur tahsils. The south-eastern part of Morshi tahsil consists of deep fertile black soils on the banks of the Wardha river. Here small villages are located on the banks of tributary streams, fairly closely spaced, at intervals of 3 kilometres or less. The immediate banks of the Wardha river badly cut up by gullying action are usually avoided.

The other region of fertile black soils is found approximately to the south of the railway line running eastwards from Chandur, for this line itself follows the southern edge of the eastward trending groups of hills from Chandur. In this south-eastern region of the district there is intensive cultivation of cotton. The date trees on the *nala* banks and patches of intensive garden cultivation reflect the good conditions of sub-soil water. Very often the *nala* banks are forested chiefly by the date trees and in spite of their good soils had been neglected in favour of the easy open lands available for cultivation elsewhere. The land is generally low-lying under 300 metres above sea level. Many of the principal villages have ruined mud forts (*gadhis*) which were constructed in the past to afford protection against the ravages of Pendharis.

SOME GENERAL FEATURES.

The most common type of natural vegetation in the deep black soil region of the Amravati plains is the *babul*, which is able to survive on all the uncultivated patches of land, on the roadside as well as on *dhurras*. It has been the customary practice in this part of Vidarbha to keep compulsory vacant strips of land 8 feet or 2.4 metres in width between adjacent fields, called *dhurras*, which can be used as common grazing ground and also for fuel-yielding trees.

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The sequence of geological formations exposed in the district is tabulated below:—

Formation	*Age*
Cotton soil, Kankar, etc.	Recent and sub-recent.
Purna alluvium	Pliestocene.
Laterite	Pliestocene.
Deccan traps with inter-trappean sediments	Lower Eocene to upper cretaceous.
Lameta beds	Turonian.
Gondwana (Kamthi)	Permian.
Metamorphics	Archaeans.

Apart from the extensive spread of Purna alluvium, much of the district is occupied by Deccan lava flows, though Lameta, Gondwana and other metamorphic rocks occur as minor inliers in the northern part of the district.

Description of Rock Units.

Archaeans.

The oldest formations comprising unclassified metamorphics are exposed on the southern margin of Gondwana sandstones, forming the southern scarp of Gawilgad hills north north-east of Achalpur, apparently brought up due to faulting.

Gondwana.

Gondwana rocks crop out as small isolated inliers within the Deccan traps along the northern border of the district. A fault trending east, north-east, west, south-west with a down-throw to the south is noticed to the north and north-east of Achalpur. Along the upthrow side of this fault and along the base of the hills, sedimentary beds crop out from beneath the traps.

The Gondwana rocks are mainly fine to medium grained feldspathic sandstones, some of which lithologically simulate the typical coal-bearing Barakar sandstones. These beds of white clay varying in thickness from 1·5 to 3 metres extending for about 450 metres are noticed interbedded with sandstones near Balkher. Several small pockets of clay are also present in them west of Pandhri between Khakarsima Pir and Bairam Ghat. In the upper horizons the sequence passes into conglomerates containing red jasper pebbles. This sequence is apparently conformably overlain by Lameta beds.

Lameta.

The sediments resting apparently conformably on the Gondwanas and underlaying the Deccan traps may be regarded as equivalent to the Lametas. They comprise thick purple clays followed by purple grey limestones containing fossil fragments of Mollusca. The outcrops are noticed associated with Gondwanas only.

Deccan Basalts (Traps)

Much of the area is occupied by Deccan lava flow of basaltic composition. They generally form flat-topped hills and display step-like terraces; terrated topography being due to variation in

*The section on Geology has been contributed by Shri A. M. Kulkarni, Assistant Geologist of the Geological Survey of India.

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Description of Rock Units.

Deccan Basalts (Traps).

hardness of different units of the flows. These deccan traps are emplaced through long narrow fissures or cracks in the earth's crust and are of the nature of fissure eruptions. They are horizontally disposed with a very gentle tilt to the west, north-west up to about 2 degrees.

Two varieties are generally noticed, the hard compact grey to dark grey and the vesicular. The latter forming the top of the flow with numerous zeolitic and calcitic infillings. The flows may be separated by thin volcanic ash or scoriae or a clayey bed popularly known as red bole bed as seen on Gawilgad hills. The timelag between two successive flows is also demarcated at places by laccustrine sediments known as Intertrappean beds as seen along the Purna river bed. On the Gawilgad range of hills the Deccan traps are composed of hard basalts showing excellent system of columnar joints.

Laterite.

Laterites generally cap the Deccan trap plateaux and are noticed south of Rithpur, about 6 km. north of Amravati, around Chikhaldara and at a few other places. It is a weathering product of Deccan basalts under the tropical conditions and is a porous, pitted, clay-like rock exhibiting various shades of red and brown colours. It is often pisolitic. the pisolites having a concentric structure and being cemented together by ferruginous matrix.

Purna Alluvium.

Alluvium with Kankar and associated with sub-recent calcarious conglomerate under-lying the black cotton soil cover extensive areas in the district, the conglomerate being more persistent along the river courses. Dazzling white, finely laminated sandy deposits extending to a thickness of about one metre is noted in the alluvial banks of the Purna river near Paruth. Much of this Purna alluvium produces afflorescence of salts, of soda chiefly and the wells sunk in the vicinity yield brackish water.

This extensive accumulation of the alluvium in the Purna valley is homotaxial with Narmada and Tapi valley alluvium and are considered to have formed in the Pliestocene period.

Soil.

Decomposition of Deccan traps has given rise to either deep brown to rich red or black cotton soil (regur) and is widespread in the district. The regur is rich in plant nutrients such as lime, magnesia and low in nitrogen and phosphorus. It is generally porous and swells considerably on addition of water and dries up with distinct cracks on loosing the moisture.

Useful Minerals and Rocks.

Being hard, compact, durable and wear-resisting, the fine grained basaltic rocks are extensively used as building stones. At places the Gondwana sandstones, clays and laterite are also used as building material. Zeolites occurring in the traps may find use in water-softening process. A few translucent varieties of amorphous and crystalline silica, viz., chalcedony, agate, etc., may serve as raw material for lapidary industry. Sandstones suitable for fine carving may be obtained from Kamthi division

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of lower Gondwanas near Achalpur. White clays associated with sandstones are locally used for white-washing village huts.

Ground Water.

Deccan traps and the overlying alluvium cover extensive areas in the district and the ground water conditions depend on the porosity and permeability in the traps. It is generally found that the flowlines, the porous decomposed upper portions of the flows and the system of joints in them are responsible for the percolation of the sub-surface water in the region. The Intertrappean beds which are highly porous are the places very thick along the river bed and allow water to pass freely. This has given rise to springs and seepages which may be seen at intervals in the bed of the Purna river.

The perennial source of water in the district is the Purna and Maru rivers with large catchment areas in precipitous country with high rainfall and impervious bed rock.

CLIMATE.

The climate of this district is characterised by a hot summer and general dryness throughout the year except during the south-west monsoon season. The year may be divided into four periods. The winter from December to February, the summer from March to May, the south-west monsoon season from June to September and the post-monsoon period from the October to November.

Rainfall.

Records of rainfall in the district are available for 13 stations for period ranging from 68 to 95 years. The details of the rainfall at these stations and for the district as a whole are given in tables 2 and 3. The average annual rainfall in the district is 877.4 mm (34.54″) in the plains. The rainfall at Chikhaldara which is a hill-station is about twice as much as in the plains. The rainfall generally increases from the south-west towards the north-east of the district, Daryapur near the south-west border of the district getting 767·8 mm. (30.23″) and Barur near the north-eastern border getting 1,007·2 mm. (39.66″) The rainfall during June to September constitutes 85 per cent of the annual rainfall, July being the rainiest month. The variation in the rainfall from year to year in the district is large. During the fifty-year period from 1901 to 1950, the highest annual rainfall which amounted to 165 per cent of the normal was recorded in 1944, while the lowest which was only 44 per cent of the normal occurred in 1920. In the same 50-year period, the rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal in 11 years. Rainfall less than 80 per cent of the normal in the two consecutive years has occurred on four occasions. In the case of individual stations even three successive years of such low rainfall have occurred once each at Kholapur and Achalpur.

It will be seen from table 3 that the annual rainfall in the district was between 600 and 1,100 mm. (23.62″ and 43.31″) in 40 years out of fifty.

On an average the number of rainy days (days with rain of 2·5 mm.—10 cents—or more) in the plains of the district is 49 in a year. At Chikhaldara there are 77 rainy days in a year.

TABLE No. 2

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall in Amravati District

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TABLE

NORMALS AND EXTREMES OF

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)	January (3)	February (4)	March (5)
Amravati	50 a	12·9	16·0	9·4
	b	1·1	1·1	0·8
Badnera	50 a	11·9	15·7	7·9
	b	1·0	1·0	0·9
Morshi	50 a	11·7	18·3	8·1
	b	1·0	1·0	0·9
Chandur Railway	50 a	13·2	16·0	8·6
	b	0·9	1·1	0·9
Kholapur	50 a	9·9	16·8	8·1
	b	1 0	1·0	0·8
Barur	50 a	12·2	21·8	12·5
	b	1·1	1·5	1·3
Talegaon	50 a	14·0	16·8	10·7
	b	1 1	1·3	1·1
Achalpur Cantonment ..	50 a	15·0	17·5	8·6
	b	1 2	1 0	0 8
Daryapur	50 a	12 7	14·7	7·4
	b	1·0	0 9	0 7
Anjangaon	50 a	13 2	12·9	8·4
	b	1·1	0·9	0·8
Dharni	50 a	7 6	7·4	5·8
	b	0·6	0·6	0·6
Chandur Bazar	50 a	17·5	17·5	8·1
	b	1·2	1·2	0·9
Amravati (District) ..	50 a	12·7	15·9	8·6
	b	1·0	1 1	0·9
				HILL
Chikhaldara	50 a	16·5	14·7	10·7
	b	1·1	1·1	1·0

(a) Normal rainfall in millimetres.

*Based on all available

†Years given

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No. 2
RAINFALL IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

April (6)	May (7)	June (8)	July (9)	August (10)
8·4	13·2	155·2	248·2	173·2
0·7	1·2	8·3	13·2	9·9
5·8	12·2	158·7	252·0	159·3
0·7	1·2	8·4	13·1	9·8
6·6	9·4	143·8	244·6	184·9
0·5	1·1	7·9	13·2	10 0
6·3	12·2	154·4	241·1	163·6
0·6	1·4	8·2	12·7	9·4
5·6	12·5	149·3	239·8	153 2
0 5	1·3	8·4	12·5	9 0
9·1	15·5	176·5	300 2	214 4
0·9	1·2	8·9	15·0	11·8
9·9	14·7	161·8	270·5	186·4
1 0	1·5	8·3	13 8	10·1
7·1	14 0	143·0	239 8	169 2
0 6	1 4	8·1	13·1	9·9
6·1	10 9	128 3	237·5	136·9
0·5	0·9	7 1	11·9	8·4
3·6	11·9	128·0	222 3	158·0
0 4	1·3	7·5	12 0	8 8
3·6	10·2	159·0	364·2	310·1
0 3	1·0	7·6	16·6	15·1
5·3	9·4	143·3	239·8	175·3
0·6	1·2	8·2	12 7	10·4
6·5	12·2	150·1	258 3	182·0
0·6	1·2	8·1	13·3	10·2
STATION				
8 6	20·1	214·1	537·0	445·0
1·0	2·0	10·3	21·0	19·7

(B) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2·5 mm. or more).
data up to 1959.
in brackets.

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TABLE

Station (1)	Number of years of data (2)		September (11)	October (12)	November (13)	December (14)
Amravati ..	50	a	165·1	44·2	21·3	9·1
		b	8·8	2·5	1·2	0·8
Badnera ..	50	a	152·7	41·1	22·9	7·6
		b	8·4	2·6	1·2	0·7
Morshi ..	50	a	146·8	49·3	18·8	6·9
		b	8·4	2·5	1 1	0·8
Chandur Railway	50	a	167·6	39·9	18·3	9·7
		b	8·5	2·4	1·1	0·7
Kholapur ..	50	a	148·6	39·9	22·3	9·7
		b	8·1	2·3	1·3	0·7
Barur ..	50	a	168·4	46·7	20·8	9·1
		b	9·1	2·6	1·0	0·8
Talegaon ..	50	a	171·2	44·5	18·5	8·4
		b	9·0	2·8	1·2	0·7
Achalpur Cantonment.	50	a	134·9	45·5	28·5	8·6
		b	8·2	2·4	1·2	0·8
Daryapur ..	50	a	142·0	39·1	23·1	9 1
		b	7·4	2·4	1·3	0·8
Anjangaon ..	50	a	146·1	46·5	28·5	8·1
		b	7·7	2·5	1·4	0·9
Dharni ..	50	a	198·1	37·1	24·1	7·1
		b	9·7	2·1	1·2	0·6
Chandur Bazar ..	50	a	142·2	42·9	24·1	6·9
		b	8·4	2·2	1 1	0·8
Amravati (District)	50	a	157·0	43·1	22·6	8·4
		b	8·5	2·4	1·2	0·8
						HILL
Chikhaldara ..	50	a	305·8	76·7	46·0	12·7
		b	13·4	3·2	1·8	1·2

(a) Normal rainfall in millimetres.
*Based on all available
†Years given

No. 2—contd.

Annual (15)	Highest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year† (16)	Lowest annual rainfall as percentage of normal and year † (17)	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours* Amount (millimetres) (18)	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours* Date (19)
876·2	175 (1944)	45 (1920)	234·9	1933 September 15
49·6				
847·8	168 (1944)	36 (1920)	293·9	1921 July 23
49·0				
849·2	200 (1944)	35 (1920)	232·4	1876 September 4
48·5				
850·9	169 (1931)	36 (1920)	271·8	1927 June 18
47·9				
815·7	204 (1931)	35 (1920)	186·7	1933 September 15
46·9				
1,007·2	170 (1944)	48 (1920)	236·0	1955 July 11
55·2				
927·4	150 (1936)	42 (1920)	224·3	1933 September 15
51·9				
831·7	192 (1944)	45 (1918)	209·0	1933 September 15
48·7				
767·8	155 (1949)	45 (1950)	208·8	1905 July 2
43·3				
787·5	175 (1933)	52 (1920)	233·7	1944 August 21
45·3				
1,134·3	159 (1944)	47 (1918)	228·6	1930 July 2
56·0				
832·3	203 (1944)	36 (1920)	160·0	1941 July 11
48·9				
877·4	165 (1944)	44 (1920)	..	..
49·3				
STATION				
1,707·9	150 (1948)	42 (1918)	431·0	1886 August 19
76·8				

(a) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).
data up to 1959.
in brackets.

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Rainfall.

TABLE No. 3

FREQUENCY OF ANNUAL RAINFALL IN THE DISTRICT (Data 1901 to 1950)

Range in millimetres (1)	No. of years (2)	Range in millimetres (1)	No. of years (2)
301—400	1	901—1,000	3
401—500	0	1,001—1,100	10
501—600	3	1,101—1,200	2
601—700	9	1,201—1,300	2
701—800	4	1,301—1,400	1
801—900	14	1,401—1,500	1

The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours recorded in the plains of the district was 293.9 mm. (11·57") at Badnera on July 23, 1921. The heaviest rainfall in 24 hours at the Chikhaldara hill station was 431.0 mm. (16.97") on August 19, 1886.

Temperature.

There is a meteorological observatory at Amravati and the data of this station may be taken as fairly representative of the climate of the district in general, except over the hilly region around Chikhaldara. There was also an observatory at Chikhaldara in the past and the available records of this observatory have also been utilised in preparing the description of the climate which follows.

After October, temperature decreases progressively till December which is the coldest month. The mean daily maximum temperature at Amravati is 28.4°C (83.2°F) and the mean daily minimum temperature is 14.7°C (58.4°F). At Chikhaldara the mean daily maximum temperature is about 22°C (72°F) and the mean daily minimum temperature is about 13°C (55°F). In the wake of western disturbances which move across North India in the winter months, cold waves affect the district at times and the night temperatures may go down to 5° or 6°C. Temperatures rise rapidly after February till May which is the hottest month of the year. In May the mean daily maximum temperature at Amravati is 42.1°C (107.8°F) and the mean daily minimum temperature is 27.2°C (80.9°F); while at Chikhaldara the mean daily maximum temperature is about 35°C (94°F) and the mean daily minimum temperature is about 23°C (73°F). The heat in the summer season is severe during the day, the nights being comparatively cooler. The afternoon heat is sometimes relieved by thundershowers. With the arrival of the south-west monsoon by about mid-June there is an appreciable drop in day temperature and the weather becomes pleasant. After the end of September when the south-west monsoon withdraws, the day temperatures increase slightly and there is a secondary maximum of temperature in October. The night temperature, however, decreases progressively after September.

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Climate.

Temperature.

The highest maximum temperature recorded at Amravati is 46.7°C (116.1°F) on 25th May, 1954 and 2nd June, 1923. The lowest minimum temperature recorded is 5.0°C (41.0°F) on 9th February 1887.

Humidity.

Except during the monsoon season when the humidity is high, the air is generally dry. The summer months are the driest, with relative humidity between 25 and 35 per cent.

Cloudiness.

During the months, when the south-west monsoon prevails skies are heavily clouded to overcast. In the rest of the year clear or lightly clouded skies prevail.

Winds.

Winds are generally light to moderate with some increase in speed in the latter part of the summer season and in the south-west monsoon season. In the post-monsoon and cold seasons, winds are mostly easterly or north-easterly. By March south-westerly and westerly winds start blowing and in the rest of the summer winds are mostly from directions between south-west and north-west. These winds continue in the south-west monsoon season also.

Special Weather Phenomena.

In association with monsoon depressions which originate in the Bay of Bengal and move westwards, the district experiences strong winds and widespread heavy rain. Storms and depressions of the post-monsoon months of October and November also affect the weather in the district sometimes Thunderstorms occur in all seasons. their frequency being least in the period from November to January.

Tables 4, 5 and 6 give the data of temperature and humidity, mean wind speed and frequency of special weather phenomena, respectively, for Amravati district.

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Temperature and Relative Humidity.

TABLE No. 4

NORMALS OF TEMPERATURE AND RELATIVE HUMIDITY IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Month (1)	Mean Daily Maximum Temperature °C (2)	Mean Daily Minimum Temperature °C (3)	Highest Maximum ever recorded °C (4)	Highest Maximum ever recorded Date (5)	Lowest Minimum ever recorded °C (6)	Lowest Minimum ever recorded Date (7)	Relative Humidity 0830* Per cent (8)	Relative Humidity 1730* Per cent (9)
January	29·2	15·1	35·0	1889 Jan. 29	6·1	1934 Jan. 14	50	31
February..	31·7	16·7	38·9	1953 Feb. 26	5·0	1887 Feb. 9	43	24
March	36·3	20·8	43·9	1892 Mar. 28	8·9	1898 Mar. 4	33	23
April	40·2	24·8	46·1	1898 Apr. 30	12·8	1905 Apr. 1	29	23
May	42·1	27·2	46·7	1954 May 25	18·3	1917 May 4	36	28
June	36·8	25·4	46·7	1923 June 2	19·4	1916 June 16	66	48
July	30·7	23·3	39·4	1931 July 1	18·9	1890 July 27	82	69
August	29·9	22·8	36·7	1902 Aug. 16	15·6	1944 Aug. 10	83	65
September	31·1	22·6	38·3	1899 Sep. 30	17·2	1893 Sep. 2	80	65
October	32·7	20·4	39·4	1899 Oct. 7	12·8	1889 Oct. 26	58	40
November	30·3	17·1	35·6	1899 Nov. 3	8·9	1884 Nov. 29	50	32
December	28·4	14·7	33·9	1913 Dec. 9	8·3	1937 Dec. 3	51	29
Annual	33·3	20·9	..	..	..	..	55	40

*Hours I.S.T.

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General.

CLIMATE.

Wind Speed and Special Weather Phenomena.

TABLE No. 5

MEAN WIND SPEED IN KILOMETRES PER HOUR IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
6·3	6·8	7·1	7·7	9·8	12·4	13·0	11·1	7·4	5·5	5·6	5·6	8·2

TABLE No. 6

SPECIAL WEATHER PHENOMENA IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Mean No. of days with	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Annual
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
Thunder ..	0·3	2·7	2·1	1·8	2·5	6·6	2·8	1·1	3·3	1·6	0·7	0·0	25·5
Hail ..	0·0	0·2	0·0	0·1	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·3
Duststorm ..	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0
Squall ..	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·1	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·1
Fog ..	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0	0·0

CHAPTER 1. — General. FORESTS.

The district exhibits two distinct geographical regions, viz., the plain regions in the east and south-east and the hilly regions of the Satpuda ranges in north and north-west. The plain region is extensively cultivated and forests appear only in dotted, scattered patches. The hilly region is an extensive block of compact forests called Melghat and contains an abundance of rich teak trees. The percentage of the forest area to total area in the district is 30.43, and is unevenly distributed.

Tree Forests.

These include the forests of Melghat capable of producing big-size teak and timber of other type.

Minor Forests.

These include the forests in the outskirts of Melghat and those in the plain regions, which are capable of producing small-size timber poles of teak, etc. These forests also supply fire-wood, thorns and grass and serve as good pastures for grazing the cattle.

Babul Bans.

These are artificially created forests of Babul (*Acacia arabica*) in the cultivated plain tracts and lie dotted over the area.

Ramnas and Pasture Forests

These include open forests with sparse tree growth and lie mostly in the plain regions of the district, where an intense demand exists for grass and grazing.

Utilization.

The forests are managed under regular working plans, the object being the supply of large-size timber for commercial use. The minor forests like Babul Bans and the Ramnas and pasture lands are being maintained to supply the local demand for small-size timber, fuel, grass and grazing.

Tahsilwise Distribution of Forests.

The tahsilwise distribution of the forests is as follows :—

Amravati Tahsil.

The area of the reserved forests is 45.5 square miles or 5.5 per cent of the total district area under forests and constitutes 6 square miles of Babul Bans and 39.5 square miles of Ramnas and pasture lands.

Chandur Tahsil.

The area of the reserved forests in this tahsil is 53.5 square miles or 8 per cent of the total, of which 19 square miles is under major forests and 34.5 square miles under Ramnas and pastures. The forests are of dry and deciduous type containing salai and other scrubs. Suitable areas have, however, been planted with teak, anjan, chandan and bamboos. The percentage of the forest area in the tahsil is 8.

Daryapur Tahsil.

The area of the reserved forests in Daryapur tahsil is 4 square miles constituting 0.7 square mile of Babul Bans and 3.7 square miles of pasture forests. The percentage of forests in this tahsil is 0.8 of the total.

Morshi Tahsil.

Morshi tahsil contains 80 square miles of reserved forests, out of which 33 square miles are under teak forests and 8 square miles are occupied by Babul Bans while the remaining 39 square miles are Ramnas and pastures. The percentage of forests in the tahsil is 12.8 of the total.

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General.
FORESTS.
Tahsilwise Distribution of Forests.
Achalpur Tahsil.
Melghat Tahsil.

The area of the reserved forests is 31 square miles or 6 per cent of the total district area of which 5 square miles is under Babul Bans. The remaining 26 square miles are pastures and Ramnas.

The area of the reserved forests in Melghat tahsil is 1,182 square miles. The entire area is under systematic working and forms the potential forest area of the district. The percentage of forests in this tahsil is 81.7.

Forest Produce.

The major forest produce is timber. The minor forest produce constitutes various items, such as bamboo, fuel, rosha grass, fodder grass, minerals, horns and hides, tendu leaves and gum.

Forest Trees.

The most useful trees and plants found in these forests, in order of their importance, are given below:—

Teak (Tectona grandis).—It is the principal species of these forests and yields the well-known teak timber used in buildings, industries, furniture making, etc.

Tiwas (Ougenia dalbergioides).—Yields valuable hard-wood of great strength and toughness. It is used in the manufacture of carts, ploughs and shafts.

Shisham (Dalbergia latifolia).—The rosewood, much used in cabinet and furniture making.

Bija (Pterocarpus marsupium).—Yields timber of reddish colour which is used for buildings, furniture making and in the preparation of agricultural implements. Gum of reddish colour oozes from this tree.

Haldu (Adina cordifolia).—Yields timber of yellowish colour and is used in house-building and in the manufacture of bobbins and boxes.

Saj (Terminalia tomentosa).—Yields hard timber which is mostly used in building houses and decks of trucks. Its bark yields tannin.

Dhawda (Anogeissus latifolia).—Yields white hard wood used for cart axles, ploughs and tool handles. It yields good gum and an excellent quality of charcoal.

Dhaman (Grewia tiliaefolia).—Its timber is useful for agricultural implements, tool handles and shafts.

Semal (Bombax malabaricum ; Silk cotton tree).—Its soft wood is used in making match-boxes and sticks and toys. The cotton is used for stuffing pillows and mattresses.

Siwan (Gmelina arborea).—It is a soft wood and yields light timber, used in house-building and furniture, drums and toys.

Kusum (Schleichera trijuga).—Yields hard wood used for the hubs of carts and for making ploughs.

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General.
FORESTS.
Forest Trees.

Kalam (*Stephegyne parvifolia*).—Its timber is used for turnery and for house-building.

Kahu (*Terminalia arjuna*).—Its timber is used for building and the bark yields tannin.

Landia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*).—Poles are used for temporary buildings. It is, however, mostly used as fuel.

Harra (*Terminalia chebula*).—Its fruits yield tannin. The wood is used for house-building and for the making of charcoal of a superior quality.

Bhormal (*Hymenodictyon excelsum*).—Yields soft quality of wood, now in demand for pencil manufacture.

Salai (*Boswellia serrata*).—These are the trees of dry area.

Moyen (*Odina nodier*).—The wood is soft and not durable.

Kekda (*Garuga pinnata*).—It is however used for making packing cases.

Maharukh (*Ailanthus excelsa*).—Yields soft wood, and is used for slate frames, packing cases and also in the manufacture of match-boxes.

Moha (*Madhuca latifolia*).—The flowers of the tree serve as human and cattle feed. The fruit yields oil.

Tendu (*Diospyros melanoxylon*).—The leaves are in demand in the *Bidi* industry. The fruits are eaten. Timber is used as poles and for shafts.

Achar (*Buchanania lanzan*).—Its seed (*Charoli*) is used in spices, and has a great value. Timber is used for the construction of temporary huts only.

Aonla (*Emblica officinalis*).—The fruit *Aonla* has medicinal value. The wood is used as fuel.

Beheda (*Terminalia belerica*).—The *Beheda* fruit is used for medicinal purpose The wood is used for temporary house construction and in the preparation of packing cases.

Bhilawa (*Semecarpus anacardium*).—The marking nut tree. The oil of the nut has a medicinal value. The wood is of no use.

Amba (*Mangifera indica*).—The mango tree. Fruit is juicy and is in general demand. The wood yields timber useful for building purposes and packing cases.

Bor (*Zizyphus jujuba*).—The fruits are edible. It is a thorny tree. The thorns are used for preparing fences around the fields.

Palas (*Butea frondosa*).—It is well-known as the "flame of the forest". It is an important host plant for lac. Its flowers are red and look attractive.

Forest Trees.

Babul (*Acacia arabica*).—This has mostly been planted in the plain tracts. It is used as fuel and in the manufacture of agricultural implements. It yields a good quality charcoal and exudes gum of commercial value.

Khair (*Acacia catechu*).—The heart-wood yields *kath* and tannin. The timber is useful for making agricultural implements, and yields good quality fuel.

Anjan (*Hardwickia binata*).—It yields a rough, hard wood used for buildings and agricultural implements. The leaves are used as fodder. This species is also raised artificially in the plains.

Jamun (*Eugenia jambolana*).—It yields timber used in buildings. Its fruits, black berries, are eaten. Other species found in the forests are *Apta-Bhosa* (*Bauhinia recemosa*), *Rohan* (*Soymida febrifuga*), *Amalatas* (*Cassia fistula*), *Bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *Kumbhi* (*Careya arborea*), *Gular* (*Ficus species*), *Dahipalas* (*Cordias*), *Mokha* (*Schrebera swietenioides*). *Bhirra* (*Chloroxylon swietenia*), *Hiwar* (*Acacia leucophloea*). The wood is used as fuel.

Kulu (*Sterculia urens*).—Yields gum of commercial value.

Gongal (*Cochlospermum gossypium*).—A soft wood tree of no value.

Dudhi (*Wrightia tinctoria*).—It is a small tree. Wood is used for turnery and in the manufacture of toys.

Arang (*Kydia calycina*).—A fast-growing tree whose poles are used for temporary sheds.

Pangra (*Exythrina Indica*).—A soft wood species of no value. It gives flowers of red colour.

Bamboos (*Dendrocalamus strictus*).—It is found in the Melghat over an extensive area.

Katang (*Bambusa arundinacea*).—It is found in the Sipna valley of Melghat and a few isolated clumps in Chikhaldara.

Roadside Trees.

The roads in the district have invariably good avenues. The trees planted along the avenues are *Siras* (*Albizzia lebbek*), *Neem* (*Melia azadarachta*), Mango (*Mangifera indica*), Cork tree (*Millingtonia hortensis*), *Wad* (*Ficus bengalensis*), *Karanj* (*Pongamia glabra*), and *Sisoo* (*Dalbergia sisoo*). In the black soil of the plains *Babul* has been planted along the roadsides. Rain tree (*Pithecolobium saman*) is an exotic which has been raised and grows readily. In the Chikhaldara plateau *Cedrela toona* has been planted along the roadsides. Most of the avenues in the plains are of *Neem* (*Melia azadirachta*) well established and pleasing to the eye.

Field Trees.

The important garden trees are Lemon, Oranges and *Mosambis*. Fairly extensive gardens have been raised in the Morshi tahsil. Banana is also grown in extensive areas in this tahsil and the

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FORESTS.

Field Trees.

other tahsils of the plains. Other species are Mangoes (*Mangifera indica*), *Phanas, Guavas, Ramphal, Sitaphal, Shewga* (*Moringa pterygosperma*), *Kavit* (*Feronia elephantum*). *Ritha* (*Sapindus laurifolius*), Seabanias are cultivated as shade-giving plants in the gardens. Castor plants are grown along the field bunds and also for shade in low-lying localities.

Fibre Plants.

The fibre plants are *Bankapas* (*Hebiscus lampas*), *Thespesias, Marorphal* (*Helicteres isora*), *Arang* (*Kydia calycina*), and *Palas* (*Butea frondosa*). The roots of these trees yield fibres. In case of *Mahul* (*Bauhinia vahlii*) tree the stem yields fibre.

Hedge Plants.

The hedge plants are—*Takal* (*Clerodendron phlomoides*) with its pleasant, sweet-smelling white flowers is a common hedge plant of the plains. *Euphorbia* and *Jatropha carcus* are commonly grown. *Inga dulees, Dudonia* and *Duranta* are also being introduced invariably in the towns.

Weeds.

The common weeds are *Tarota* (*Cassia tora*), *Burrs* (*Achyranthes aspera*), *Bantulsi* (*Flactranthus Linoifolius*). These are invading the heavily grazed forest areas, particularly the pasture lands and the *Babul* bans. *Lantana* (*Lantana camera*) is a pest in the forests of Melghat and grows thick in the under-storey and is detrimental to regeneration of the species and grasses. It is also invading the forests in the plains in Amravati and Morshi tahsils.

Wild Climbing Plants.

The wild climbers found in the forests are. *Chilati* (*Caesalpinia sepiaria*), (*Mimosa rubicaulis*), *Churni* (*Zizyphusrugosa*), and *Lantana* (*Lantana camera*). These are thorny climbers and do a great damage to the tree crop. *Banda* (*Loranthus longiflorus*) is a parasite found invariably on *Mahuwa* and *Achar*. *Gawar* (*Hamiltonia suaveolens*), *Piwal bel* (*Milletia auriculata*), *Palas bel* (*Butea superba*). are found in the high quality forests. The stem of *Mahul* (*Bauhinia vahlii*) gives fibre and the leaves are used for plates. The sheds of *Gunchi* (*Abrus precatorius*) are used for medicines.

Grasses.

The grasses are used for fodder, thatching and for the extraction of oil.

Fodder grasses : The chief fodder grasses are *Sahada* (*Ischaemum*), *Marvel* or *Hariyali pilosum* (*Iseilema wightii* or *Cynodon dactylon*), *Paunia* (*Ischaemum Sulcatum*), *Gondali* (*Anthistiria ciliata*).

Thatching grasses: *Kusal* (*Andropogon contortus*), *Tikari* (*Andropogon Schoenanthus*). Other grasses found are *Pochati* (*Apluda varia*), *Karsali* (*Chionachne barbata*), *Baru* (*Sarbhum halepense*), which are of no use.

Exotics.

Exotics have been planted mostly in the civil station of Chikhaldara. Recently quite a few were introduced in the plains. These are the Rain tree, Eucalyptus, Hybrid and *Camaldulensis*.

FORESTS.

The exotics growing at Chikhaldara are *Cupressus tarulosa, Cashmeriana, Pinus longifolia, Grevillea robusta, Eucalyptus, Paniculata* and Hybrid.

Wild climbing Plants.

Ornamental and showy plants have been planted at suitable places all over the district and the following are thriving well: *Gulmohar, cossias peltophorum,* Spathodias and *Kigelia.*

WILD ANIMALS.

The physical features of the district are distinguished into two marked tracts. In the east and south are the intensively cultivated plain tracts, with scattered blocks of forests. The portion in the north and north-west, called Melghat, comprises the hilly terrain of the Gawilgad ranges of the Satpudas. The plain tracts contain open type of forest, as a result of the biotic influences. The hilly region is a well-preserved compact block of forest. The existence of the fauna has a direct relation with the condition of the vegetation and the biotic influences. The plain tract is thus poor in fauna, while the well-preserved forest of the hilly region is richly stocked with different kinds of wild animals.

Black Monkey.

The Black Monkey (*Semnopithecus entellus*; M. Vanar) is met with in all parts of the district. In the plain tract, it is found in large numbers. Herds of over 50 are not an uncommon sight. It causes a considerable damage to the crop in the fields and the gardens. There are instances, when grown up males have attacked the villagers, when attempted to scare away from the fields or gardens.

Red Monkey.

The Red Monkev (*Macacus rhesus*; M. Makad): It is nor so common as the Langur and confines to the Sirashan valley roundabout Chikhaldara.

Wild Cows.

They confine to the tracts of the forests in the plains. Calves let loose take resort to nearby forests and become wild. They thrive in large numbers. Herds of 50 to 100 are found in the Chirodi reserved forests particularly, and other isolated blocks of the Chandur tahsil. They cause serious damage to the crops. Contracts for the capture of these animals are given to eradicate the menace but the efforts have met with no success and the menace continues.

The Tiger (*Felis tigris*; M. Vagh): It is essentially a forest animal. When his natural food like pigs and deer, etc., gets scarce, the tiger takes to cattle-lifting. It however, avoids confrontation with humans. Cases of man-eaters are rare. In a recent instance, three tiger cubs about one year old, turned into man-eaters, after their mother was shot. Tigers are found in a fair number in the Melghat forests The census carried out during the year 1960 recorded a stock of 40 tigers, 18 tigresses and 13 tiger cubs. The plain forests are devoid of this animal.

Panther.

Two varieties of panthers are found, viz., the pard (*Felis pardus*; M. Bibtya) and the panther (*Felis panthera*; M. Bibtya

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General.
WILD ANIMALS.
Panther.

vagh). Pard is a smaller animal, while panther is heavier and more powerful, with distinct and larger spot markings on the skin. Its skin is attractive and is much sought after by sportsmen. Panthers are found both in the plains and in the Melghat forests. These are rather bold animals and would not show much fear of men. Instances are common when panthers have walked in the villages to prey upon dogs, goats and cattle. Cases of panthers freely and frequently roaming in the vicinity of the Chikhaldara civil station and entering the forest village of Shahpur for lifting cattle have very often been reported. Though panthers are often known to have lifted cattle unlike tigers they rarely turn into man-eaters.

Jungle Cat.

Jungle Cat (*Felis chaus*; M. Ran Manjar): It is fairly common in the forest areas of the plains and of Melghat. Specimen of all colours are met with.

Hyaena.

Hyaena (*Hyaena striata*; M. Taras): It is found in the forests of the plains and Melghat, generally frequenting the forests in the vicinity of the villages. It is an excellent scavenger.

Jackal and Fox.

Jackal (*Canis aureus*; M. Kolha) and Fox (*Vulpes bengalensis*; M. Kolha): These are found in the forests of the plains and of Melghat. Jackals are reported to damage the crops.

Wild Dogs.

Wild Dogs (Red dogs; M. Ran Kutra): These are found in the Melghat forests in a fairly large number. They roam about and are very destructive to the game, particularly the Sambhars. The aboriginals regard them as useful friends for when a pack has pulled down a Sambhar, they scare away the dogs and appropriate the flesh. Rewards are offered to kill these animals.

Bears.

The Indian Sloth Bear (*Ursus vel melursus ursinus*; M. Asval): It is common in the Melghat forests. It is very much feared by the aboriginals for its stubborn combativeness. Cases of mauling when disturbed by the local people are frequent.

Badger.

The Badger or Ratel (*Melhvora indica*; M. Bijju): It is not a common animal and is found particularly in the neighbourhood of Bairat in Melghat.

Wild Pig.

The Wild Pig (*Sus Scrofa fel cristatus*; M. Ran Dukkar): It is common in forests of Melghat and also in the plains though in much less number. In the Melghat forests large herds of over 50 are met with. They cause considerable damage to the forest villages and also to the bamboo plantations. In the Melghat forests, their number is fairly large and the consequent damage being considerable, it has been recommended to be declared as a vermin.

Hare

The Common Indian Hare (*Lepus ruficaudatus*; M. Sasa): It is common in the forests of this district. These animals cause great damage to the seedlings in the nurseries, particularly the plants with succulent roots, bamboos, and semal.

Porcupines (M. Sayal) are found in the Melghat forests and are common in the Chikhaldara and Gugamal ranges. These are also good scavengers.

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General.

WILD ANIMALS.

Porcupine.

Mongoose.

Mongoose (M. Mungus) is found in the forests of Melghat. There are two main varieties, viz., *Herpestes Palidus vel Griscus* and *Herpestes jerdemi.* The latter is mostly found roundabout Chikhaldara.

Otter.

The Otter (*Lutra nain;* M. Pankutra) is found in the pools of the Sipna river in Melghat, and is getting extinct gradually.

Bison.

Of the horned game, the most important is the Bison (*Bos vel gavaeus gaurus;* M. *Gava*). It is a magnificent animal and is under protection. Large herds are met with in the forests of Gugamal, Khirpani, Chaurakund and Raipur. These animals cause extensive damage to the young plantations and the young forest crops. Allowance is made to shoot a few of them in order to minimise the destruction of the crops and plantations.

The district contains three species of deer and four of antelopes.

Sambhar.

The Sambhar (*Rusa aristotelis;* M. Sambhar) is found in the Melghat forests and occasionally into the plain forests of Morshi range coming from the adjoining forests of Betul. The animal is under complete protection since a couple of years. The number has increased in the Khirpani, Gugamal ranges of the Melghat forests particularly due to the policy of protecting the wild animal reserve. Some of them are found to damage the plantations. A few heads are recommended to be shot from such blocks, where the damage is extensive.

Chital.

The Chital (*Axis maculatus;* M. Chital) is found in comparatively small numbers and is particularly confined to the Chirodi reserved forests in Amravati range and the Somthana area of Dhulghat range. It was fairly abundant in Morshi forest, where it is now scarce.

Barking Deer.

The Barking deer (*Cervulus muntjac;* M. Baikar) is more abundantly found in the Melghat and occasionally in the forests of the plains in Morshi and Chirodi.

Blue Bull.

Blue Bull (*Portax pictus vel boselephas tragocamelus;* M. Nilgai) is the animal of the plain forests and is found in Chirodi and the blocks of Morshi range. It is absent in the Melghat, though occasionally met with in the open areas of the Dhulghat reserved forests.

Black Buck.

The Black Buck (*Antilope bezoartica;* M. Kalwit) used to be common in the plain forests of Morshi and Amravati, but is practically extinct. It is unknown in the Melghat forests.

Chinkara (*Gazella bennettii;* M. Chinkara) is common in the plain forests of Amravati and Morshi.

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WILD ANIMALS. Charsingha. Grey Squirrel and Others.

The Four-horned Antelope (M. Charsingha) is common in the Melghat Forests.

The grey squirrel (M. Sal) is common and is found in large numbers all over the district. In addition there are numerous kinds of lizards including the Ghorpad. Snakes like Cobra, Krait, Vipers and the Indian Python are commonly found. The alligator is reported to be found in the pools of the Tapi river forming the boundary of the district.

BIRDS.

The birds of the district include most of the gaily plumaged varieties common elsewhere, such as the golden orioles, the blue roller, the king-fisher and the little green fly-catchers. They also include the painted and rock sand grouses. the peacock, the jungle quail. the grey partridge, jungle fowl, green pigeon, crow, the large grey and rain quail and the button quail. Pea fowls and jungle fowls are particularly abundant in the Melghat forests in the valley of the Sipna river.

Of the water birds the ordinary varieties of duck and teal, as well as the varied assortment of cranes and other shore birds are found.

In Melghat many rare birds like the black and orange fly catcher (*Ochromela nigrorufa*), otherwise found in the Nilgiris and in Ceylon, are seen. *Cyornis Tickellia,* Tickell's blue red-breast common in Central India are also found here. *Myiophonus Horsfieldii* — the Malbar whistling thrush is found near Chikhaldara.

FISH. Introduction.

Amravati district affords natural facilities for the development of inland fisheries as there are about 300 tanks, in addition to the rivers. Of these 300 tanks only 35 are perennial, the rest being shallow and seasonal, but they serve the purpose of developing fishery effectively.

The tanks of Pohra, Chikhaldara, Anjangaon Bari as well as the drinking water supply tanks of Wadali and Chhatri have been brought under scientific fish culture with remarkable success during the last five years. They are stocked with fry and fingerlings of Bengal carps, viz., Catla (*Catla catla*), Rohu (*Labeo rohita*) and Mrigal (*Cirrhina mrigala*). These varieties are imported from West Bengal and introduced in the tanks.

The principal rivers which afford facilities for pisciculture are the Purna river and a 40-mile belt of the Tapi. Pedhi, Kholat, Shahanur, Bembla, Wardha and Chandrabhaga are the other rivers affording habitat facilities for fish life and growth. But these rivers are rather shallow and do not have enough deep pools to serve as perennial fish culturing rivers. However, the resources afforded by these rivers are exploited to a beneficial extent and varieties such as Murrel, Wallago, minor carps and several other species of lesser importance are reared.

Prospects of development of fisheries.— There is a wide scope for development of fisheries in Amravati district. The important fishery resources have been exploited and the

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General.

FISH.

Introduction.

supply of fish has been appreciably increased. The fishery administration here is looked after by an Assistant Superintendent of Fisheries and is controlled at the divisional level by the Superintendent of Fisheries, Nagpur. There are eight departmental tanks for fish-fattening operations. Encouraged by the results of pisciculture in these tanks, several private parties, grampanchayats, fisheries co-operatives are approaching for supply of Bengal carp fry and for technical guidance. Angling as a sport is also encouraged at departmental tanks. The riverine fishery is not restricted by the Government and fishermen are allowed to fish in these rivers without any lease or royalty. Thus 35 perennial tanks and eight rivers provide fair facilities for fishery development in Amravati district.

Important Fresh-Water Fauna.

The following fishes are found in the tanks and rivers of Amravati District:—

		Equivalent Vernacular Names
Chana marulius (Murrel)	...	मरळ
Chana striatus	...	घडक्या
Chana punctatus	...	बोटरी
Wallago attu	...	शिवडा
Puntius kolus	...	कोलशी
Puntius sarana	...	खवली
Labeo fimbriatus	...	नदीचा रोहू
Labeo bata	...	बाटा
Mystus seengala (Singar)	...	शिंगाळा
Glossogobius giuris	...	रेंगसा
Nandus nandus	...	डुक्कर मासळी
Heteropheustes fossilis (Singi)	...	शिंगण
Clarias batrachus (Magur, Waghur)		वाघूर
Anguilla bengalensis	...	बाम
Chela clupeoides	...	चाल, पेरशी
Rasbora daniconius	...	गणो
Puntius ticto	...	गादड
Colisa fasciata	...	भुजी
Xenentodon cancila	...	सुबा

Besides these species of fish, several types of prawns and crabs are found in the district Of these *Palaemon carcinus* is the commercially important prawn found in Wardha river.

Gear Used.

Fishermen employ fishing gear mainly of four types, viz., cast-net (फेकजाळें), drag-net (तांगड), gill net and long lines (दावण).

Gill Net.

This net stands erect in the watersheet like a wall. It does not attract the fish, but provides a barrier in their way, so that the fish passing across are entangled and gilled. The mesh size

CHAPTER 1. General. FISH. Gear Used. *Gill Net.*

varies from 4" to 8" depending upon the size of the fish to be caught. The net consists of rectangular pieces, each of about 125' in length and 20' in breadth. The headline and the bottom line are provided with floats and sinkers, respectively. Nowadays the synthetic twines like nylon and terylene have become more popular with the fishermen as they are more durable than cotton twine.

Long Line.

It is locally called *davan* and contains about 50 to 100 strong hooks, suspended horizontally from a line about 150' in length. The string used is of cotton. The size of hooks varies from 1" to ½". Earthworm, pieces of frog flesh and fish, insects, etc., are used as bait.

Cast Net.

This net is conical in shape, made of cotton twine with lead balls attached to the edges and a string fastened in the middle. Its mesh size varies from ½" to ¾" and cannot be operated in deep waters. It is used on a very small scale and is not effective from the commercial point of view. It has a length of about 10 ft. and circumference of about 25'. It traps the fish by settling over them.

Drag Net.

This net, locally called *Langad*, is rectangular in shape and is composed of five to ten pieces, each piece being of 12'×10' measurements. Its mesh size is ¾" and has wooden floats attached to the upper edge and earthen beads to the lower. While spreading in the tank one end of the net is held by two men and others spread it into the tank. Then in a semi-circular fashion the other end is also brought to the shore and both ends are pulled together. It can also be operated in shallow waters.

Co-operative Movement.

With a view to improve the socio-economic condition of the fishermen and extend them financial help three co-operative societies have been formed in the district. The co-operative movement in this respect was initiated with the establishment of the Sahakari Machhimari Sanstha, Ltd., in April, 1961. The other two established at a later stage are: Pashu Sudhar and Matsya Samvardhana Co-operative Society Ltd., Karla, and Shriram Machhimari Sahakari Society Ltd., Achalpur City.

Work Done During Five-Year Plans.

During the First Five-Year Plan work in this respect, mainly consisted of establishment of a departmental demonstration-*cum*-production unit and the management of stocking and netting operations.

Considerable progress was made during the Second Plan. The programme of "Stocking of Inland waters with carp fry" was successfully implemented. An intensive survey of several water sheets was conducted and an area of 462 acres was brought under pisciculture. Under the abovementioned programme the tanks of Sakkar, Pohra and Chhatri were stocked with as many as 1,60,000 Bengal carp fry.

Schemes During Third Plan.

The Fisheries Department of the State Government had framed the following four schemes to be implemented during the

CHAPTER 1.

General.

FISH.

Schemes During Third Plan.

Third Plan Period with the object of speeding up the culture of fish in the district:—

(1) stocking of tanks with carp fry,

(2) assistance for the purchase of fishery requisites,

(3) grant of general purpose loans for the development of fisheries, and

(4) scheme for development of co-operative fisheries.

Work Done So Far.

The total outlay on the four schemes stands at Rs. 1,00,936 for the Third Five-Year Plan. In the first two years of the plan a survey of water sheets covering 950 acres was made and nine tanks covering an area of 283 acres were brought under pisciculture. In all, twelve tanks were stocked with 6,52,000 carp fry and 250 fingerlings of quick growing variety.

Pashu Sudhar Society at Karla was supplied with carp fry variety. Up to the end of August, 1963, 6,500 kg. of fish was netted out from the departmental tanks. In addition to the successful demonstration of scientific methods of fish culture for the benefit of the fishermen a revenue of Rs. 5,994.95 was realized by the sale of marketable size of fish from the tanks.

Induced breeding experiments were conducted in the Chhatri tank but due to the late monsoons, could not achieve the desired success. Government invested a total of Rs. 3,000 in the co-operative societies and a subsidy of Rs. 1,000 was given to the Sahakari Machhimari Sanstha.

Work Proposed to be Done.

(i) Vast area of watersheets remains to be brought under pisciculture. There are 35 perennial tanks and 8 rivers in the district. So far only 12 tanks have been brought under fish culture. Remaining tanks will be surveyed and suitable ones will be brought under fish culture. It is proposed to establish at least one demonstration-*cum*-production unit in each block, wherever possible. Thereby fish production will be increased, fishermen's socio-economic condition will be improved and fishing trade will be augmented.

(ii) Induced breeding experiments will be conducted to produce carp fry locally.

(iii) More fishermen's societies will be organised.

(iv) Sets of nurseries will be constructed at suitable places for rearing carp fry to fingerling stage suitable for stocking.

(v) Loans and subsidies will be granted to the societies and individual fishermen for construction of fishing boats, purchase of nylon twine for making nets, and the purchase of other fishery requisites.

(vi) Amravati Municipality is being pursued to construct a fish market, for sale of fish in hygienic manner.

Fishing Communities

The chief fishing communities in the district are Machhi Bhoi and Kharal Bhoi. The local fishery being of negligible magnitude cannot provide the fishermen with full-time employment and, therefore, they also take to poultry and sheep-rearing. At times

CHAPTER 1. General. FISH. Fishing Communities.

they also work as labourers in the fields. Out of the total population of 1,232,780 of Amravati district about 4,000 persons are engaged in the fishing industry.

Co-operative Movement Amongst Fishermen.

Improvement of the socio-economic condition of fishermen has been one of the main objects of the Fisheries department. Attention is focussed on the formation of fisheries co-operatives. The first co-operative society named "Sahakari Machhimari Sanstha, Wadali" was registered on 26th April, 1961. At present there are three fishermen's co-operative societies functioning in this district. Apart from the societies' activities, fishing permits to net out fish from the departmental tanks are also given to the societies. During departmental works, such as transplantation of fingerlings, induced breeding experiments, etc., members of society are engaged on daily wages. Fishermen of Wadali society also sell marine fish (dried as well as iced) obtained by railway parcel from Bombay.

Net-making is carried out during monsoons. This serves to keep the members fully occupied.

Basis of Fishing Rights.

Fishing rights of rivers are not leased out in this district. Besides Government tanks, there are some tanks which are under the ownership of local bodies like municipality, grampanchayat, etc. Generally the tank is auctioned in favour of the highest bidder. No preference is, at present, being given to the fisheries co-operative societies or fishermen. Moreover, the tanks are not given on long-term lease to the fish farmers.

SNAKES.

Amravati district has hilly regions in the north and north-eastern borders. These regions adjoin the Burhanpur, Betul and Chhindwara forests. The other parts of the district are dry and have a black cotton soil. In fact there seems to be a perpetual scarcity of water in and around Amravati. Looking to this nature of the terrain therefore it is no wonder that a number of snakes are found in the north, while the south seems to confine to Cobra, Russels Viper, Rat snake and the Checkered black. In the hilly north there is a likelihood of the prevalence of the rough tailed snake also. Snake bite cases are few and far between in the south and are mostly confined to the cobras. The bite normally expected is that by a cobra which has a neurotoxic poison. If a poisonous snake has bitten and a sufficient lethal dose of venom injected, then the patient can only be saved by an antivenin. In cases of sub-lethal dose and non-poisonous snake bites, the patients can be cured by psychological treatments.

The snakes in the district are given below:—

Family : *Boidae*

Non-poisonous.

This family is represented by *Eryx conicus*, *Eryx johnii* and *Python molurus*.

Eryx conicus: This short snake with blunt tail is found all over the district. It is locally called Dutondya. It has brown irregular patches on its grey body. This snake is very sluggish and grows

to about two and a half feet. It feeds on frogs, lizards and mice and is absolutely harmless. It may be mistaken to be the young one of a python. The latter is pink and is much thicker with a fine tapering tail. *Eryx johnii* has no patches and is blackish in colour. It is slightly longer than *Eryx conicus* and stays more or less submerged in soil.

Python molurus: This snake is locally called Ajgar and is found in thick forests. It grows to a length of fourteen feet. There are brown patches on its grey body and has a pink head and faint brown lower sides. It is omnivorous and feeds on anything living which it kills by constriction.

Family: *Colubridae*

Oligodon sp: This brown snake with thick pale cross bars on the body is found near human habitations and in gardens. It is often mistaken for a krait. It is harmless and feeds on insects and frogs.

Lycodon aulicus: This wolf snake is quite common all over the district. It grows to about two feet and is mistaken for a krait. It is harmless, and is brown coloured with whitish cross bars.

Natrix piscator: This snake is locally known as Pandiwad. It is a checkered green-black snake with black irregular markings and is found in muddy places.

Ptyas mucosus: This is locally known as Dhaman. It is a long snake growing to about nine feet and is seen all over the district. There are big yellowish brown marks on its body as also in the tail region and at the sides. This snake is harmless, but is often mistaken to be poisonous. This snake feeds on rats and as such it is also called a rat snake.

Natrix stolata: This snake is found particularly after the monsoon. It does not grow more than three feet and has brown and black longitudinal stripes. It can be handled with ease and is sometimes maintained as a pet. It is absolutely harmless.

Dryophis nasutus: This parrot—green snake growing to about 5 feet in length and having a very pointed head is locally known as Sarpatoli. It has the peculiar habit of staying in vegetation growth and keeping its head raised. It should not be mistaken with the tree viper. The latter is of a deeper green colour, has a triangular head and is much thicker and smaller in size than Sarpatoli.

Boiga gokool: This is the cat snake which is found in the areas of low-lying forests. This snake is yellowish above with a series of vertical bars on each side separated from one another by a light vertical line. The head has a large arrow shaped black edged mark. It grows to four feet and is very much feared though it is a non-poisonous snake. *Boiga forestens* has been recorded in this region.

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General.

SNAKES.

Poisonous.

Family: *Elapidae*

Bungaurs coarulus: This common krait which is locally known as Manyar is met with at the bottom of the foot hills. In this region this snake does not grow more than about 3 feet. It is steel blue and has white double cross bars over the body. It is a very poisonous snake and the venom is neurotoxic.

Callophis melanurus: It is found in the areas adjoining Betul. It is light brown with deep scales and light longitudinal lines all over the body.

Naja Naja: Cobras are common all over the district. Both the binocellate variety and the one with no mark are seen in this district. There are brownish varieties found all over the district. This snake can never be mistaken. It is worshipped because of its frightful colouration and the hood as well as its poison. It is quite a deadly snake and the poison is neurotoxic.

Family: *Viperidae*

Vipera Ruselli: This snake is locally called Ghonas or Kandor. It is a brown snake having three rows of deep brown white ringed marks on the dorsal side. It hisses loudly and could be heard from a very long distance. The poison of this snake is vasotoxic and the bite is extremely painful.

CHAPTER 2 — HISTORY*

CHAPTER 2.

History.

ANCIENT PERIOD.

UNLIKE THE NĀGPUR DISTRICT, THE AMRĀVATĪ DISTRICT HAS NO SUCH VESTIGES OF PREHISTORIC HABITATION as dolmens and other sepulchral monuments. For the most ancient history of this region we have therefore to depend on legends recorded in the Epics and the *Purāṇas*. According to them, the country to the south of the Vindhya was then covered by a thick jungle. Agastya was the first Āryan who crossed the mountain and fixed his abode on the bank of the Godāvarī. This memorable event is commemorated in the mythological story which represents Vindhya as bending before his *guru* Agastya when the latter approached him on his way to the south. The sage asked the mountain to remain in that condition until he returned from the south, which he never did. There are temples of Agastya in several places in the south such as the Mahendra and Malya mountains and even in distant Ceylon, but not in North India, which lends colour to this legend. Later, he married Lopāmudrā, the daughter of the king of Vidarbha.

Agastya was followed by several other sages who established their hermitages in several regions of the south. They were constantly harassed by the original inhabitants who are called *Rākṣasas* in the *Rāmāyaṇa*. "These shapeless and ill-looking monsters testify their abominable character by various cruel and terrific displays. They implicate the hermits in impure practices and perpetrate the greatest outrages. Changing their shapes and hiding in the thickets adjoining the hermitages, these frightful beings delight in terrifying the devotees. They cast away the sacrificial ladles and vessels, they pollute the cooked oblations, and utterly defile the offerings with blood. These faithless creatures inject frightful sounds into the ears of the faithful and austere hermits. At the time of the sacrifice they snatch away the jars,

*(a) The section on Ancient History is contributed by Mahamahopadhyaya Dr. V. V. Mirashi of Nagpur University.

(b) The sections from medieval period onwards are contributed by Dr. B. G. Kunte, M.A., Ph.D. (Economics), Ph. D. (History), Joint Editor, and edited by Shri P. Setu Madhava Rao, M.A., I.A.S., Executive Editor and Secretary. A part of the material for the same is supplied by Dr. M. S. Agaskar, Professor and Head of the History Department, R. R. College, Bombay-19.

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the flowers, the fuel and the sacred grass of the sober-minded men[1]."

In course of time a large kingdom was founded in this region by king Vidarbha, and the son of Ṛṣabhadeva, which became well-known by his name. Its capital was Kuṇḍinapūra in the Amrāvatī district, which is still known by its ancient name. It is situated on the bank of the Wardhā in the Cāndūr *tahsil*. It continued to be the capital of this region throughout the *Paurāṇic* period. Later, though the capital was shifted to other places, Kuṇḍinapūra retained its importance for a long time. Recently some hoards of Kṣatrapa coins have been discovered there which testify to its flourishing in the fourth century A.D.[2] Kuṇḍinapūra has several mounds indicative of its antiquity, which, if excavated, will yield valuable information about the early history of Vidarbha.

As stated before, Agastya married Lopāmudrā, a princess of Vidarbha. He is the seer of some hymns of the *Ṛgveda*. His wife Lopāmudrā is also mentioned in *Ṛgveda*, I, 179, 4, though Vidarbha is not named therein. The country of Vidarbha became well-known in the age of the *Upaniṣads*. The *Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad* mentions the sage Kauṇḍinya of Vidarbha. In the *Praśnopaniṣad* is mentioned one Bhārgava of Vidarbha, who asked questions about some philosophical matters. In the *Rāmāyaṇa Uttarakāṇḍa*, there occurs the story of king Daṇḍa, in whose time Vidarbha was devastated by a terrible dust-storm. Daṇḍa was a son of Ikṣvāku and grandson of Manu. He ruled over the country between the Vindhya and Śaivala mountains from his capital Madhumanta. He led a voluptuous life and once upon a time violated the daughter of the sage Bhārgava. The sage cursed the king that his whole kingdom would be devastated by a terrible dust-storm. The whole country between Vindhya and Śaivala mountains, extending over a thousand *yojanas*, was consequently turned into a great forest which since then came to be known as Daṇḍakāraṇya. It was in this forest that the Śudra sage Śambūka was practising penance. As this was an irreligious act according to the notions of those days, Rāma beheaded him and saved the life of a Brāhmaṇa boy who had died prematurely. That the region north Vidarbha was included in the Daṇḍaka forest is shown by the tradition which states that Śambūka was practising austerities on the hill near Rāmṭek about 28 miles from Nāgpūr. The site is still shown on the hill near Rāmṭek and is marked by the temple of Dhumreśvara. This tradition is at least seven hundred years old, for it is mentioned in the stone inscription of the reign of the Yādava king Rāmacandra, fixed into the front wall of the *garbhagṛha* of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill of Rāmṭek[3].

[1]. Muir's *Original Sanskrit Texts*, quoted in the previous edition of the Nagpur District Gazetteer.

[2]. *J. N. S. I.*, Vol. XXIII.

[3]. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXV, p. 7 f.

The *Rāmāyaṇa*, the *Mahābhārata* and the *Purāṇas* mention several sacred rivers of Vidarbha such as the Pāyoṣṇī (Pūrṇā), the Varadā (Wardhā), and the Veṇā (Waingaṅgā). Of these, the Pāyoṣṇī was regarded as the most sacred. From the description in the *Vanaparvan* (*adhyāya* 85, verses 40-41), it seems that it flowed near Daṇḍakāraṇya. The Epic says that in holiness it was equivalent to all the sacred rivers including the Gaṅgā put together and that he who worships the gods and manes on its banks gets the religious merit of the *Mahādāna* of a thousand cows. The Pāyoṣṇī flows through the Amrāvatī district.

The royal house of Vidarbha was matrimonially connected with several princely families of North India. The Vidarbha princesses Damayanti, Indumatī and Rukmiṇī, who married Nala, Aja and Kṛṣṇa, respectively, are well-known in Indian literature. Several great Sanskṛt and Marāṭhī poets from Kālidāsa onwards have drawn the themes of their works from their romantic lives. Some places in this district are intimately connected with the life of Kṛṣṇa. He is said to have abducted Rukmiṇī from the temple of Indra where she had gone for worshipping Indrāṇī. This temple is popularly identified with the temple of Aṁbā in the town of Amarāvatī. The identification is, however. unlikely as from the description in the *Harivaṁśa*, the temple was situated on the outskirts of Kuṇḍinapūra, while the distance of Amrāvatī from Kuṇḍinapūra, the capital of Vidarbha, is more than 25 miles. When Rukmiṇī was abducted by Kṛṣṇa, Rukmin, her brother, vowed that he would not return to Kuṇḍinapūra unless he killed Kṛṣṇa and rescued his sister. As he did not succeed in this, he refused to return to the capital, but founded a new city named Bhojakaṭa, where he fixed his residence. Bhojakaṭa is usually identified with Bhātkuli, a village about 8 miles from Amarāvatī, where there is still a temple of Rukmin. Bhojakaṭa was the head-quarters of a division (*rāṣṭra*) in the age of the Vākāṭakas and is mentioned in the Cammak plates of Pravarasena II[1].

Coming to historical times, we find that the country of Vidarbha was included in the empire of the great Aśoka. The thirteenth rock-edict of that great Emperor mentions the Bhojas among the people who follow his religious precepts. The royal family of Bhoja was ruling over Vidarbha in ancient times. Since then the people came to be known as the Bhojas. An inscription, probably issued by the *Mahāmātra* appointed by Aśoka to rule over Vidarbha, has been found at Devṭek in the Cāndā district of Vidarbha. It records an order promulgated by his *Svāmin* (i.e., Aśoka) interdicting the capture and slaughter of animals. It is dated in the fourteenth regnal year, evidently of Aśoka[2]. The inscribed stone is now deposited in the Central Museum, Nāgpūr.

After the overthrow of the Maurya dynasty in *circa* 184 B. C., the imperial throne in Pāṭaliputra was occupied by the *Senāpati* Puṣyamitra, the founder of the Śuṅga dynasty. His son Agnimitra

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[1]. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 22 f.

[2]. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 109 f.

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was appointed viceroy of Mālvā and ruled from Vidiśā, modern Besnagar, a small village near Bhilsā. Vidarbha which had seceded from the Maurya Empire during the reign of one of the weak successors of Aśoka, was then ruled by Yajñasena. He imprisoned his cousin Mādhavasena, who was a rival claimant for the throne. The sister of Mādhavasena escaped to Mālvā and got admission as a hand-maid under the name of Mālavikā to the royal harem. Agnimitra, who had espoused the cause of Mādhavasena and sent an army against the king of Vidarbha, fell in love with Mālavikā and married her. The Mālava army defeated the king of Vidarbha and released Mādhavasena. Agnimitra then divided the country of Vidarbha between the two cousins, each ruling on either side of the Varadā (modern Wardhā). Western Vidarbha thus comprised Amrāvatī, Akolā, Buldhāṇā, Yeotmāl, Parbhaṇī and Nānded districts. It was bounded on the west by the Ṛṣīka and Mūlaka countries and on the south by the Aśmaka country. The story of Mālavikā forms the plot of the play *Mālavikāgnimitram* of the great Sanskṛt poet Kālidāsa.

Kālidāsa does not state to what royal family Yajñasena and Mādhavasena belonged and these names do not occur anywhere else. Still it is possible to conjecture that they might have been feudatories of the Sātavāhanas. From the Hāthīgumphā inscription[1] at Udayagirī near Bhuvaneśvar, we learn that Khāravela, the king of Kaliṅga, who was a contemporary of Puṣyamitra sent an army to the western region, not minding Sātakarṇī. The latter evidently belonged to the Sātavāhana dynasty as the name occurs often in that family. Khāravela's army is said to have penetrated up to the river Kaṇhabeṇṇā and struck terror in the hearts of the people of Ṛṣīka[2]. The Kaṇhabeṇṇā is the river Kanhān which flows about 10 miles from Nāgpūr. Khāravela's army therefore invaded Vidarbha. He knew that as the ruler of Vidarbha was a feudatory of king Sātakarṇī, the latter would rush to his aid. When Vidarbha was thus invaded, the people of Ṛṣīka (Khāndeś, which bordered Vidarbha on the west) were naturally terror-stricken. No actual encounter seems, however, to have taken place and the army retreated to Kaliṅga perhaps at the approach of the Sātavāhana forces.

The Sātavāhanas, who are called Āndhras in the *Purāṇas*, held Vidarbha for four centuries and a half from *circa* 200 B. C. to A. D. 250. Their earliest inscriptions, however, which record their performance of *Vedic* sacrifices and munificent gifts to Brāhmaṇas are found in the Poonā and Nāśik districts. Towards the close of the first century A.D. they were ousted by the Śaka Satraps from Western Mahārāṣṭra. They then seem to have found shelter in Vidarbha. No inscriptions of the Sātavāhanas have indeed been found in Vidarbha, but in one of Nāśik inscriptions Gautamiputra Sātakarṇī, who later on exterminated the Śakas and reoccupied Western Mahārāṣṭra, is called Beṇākaṭakasvāmī, the

[1]. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. 29, p. 79.

[2]. Jayaswal and Banerji's reading *Musika* in line 4 of this inscription is incorrect. Barua reads *Asika*, which seems to be correct. For the identification of this country see *A. B. O. R. I.*, Vol. XXV, p. 167 f.

lord of Beṇākaṭa[1]. No satisfactory explanation of this expression was possible until the discovery of the Tiroḍī plates of the Vākāṭaka king Pravarasena II[2]. These plates record the grant of a village in the Beṇṇākaṭa, which must have comprised the territory on both the banks of the Beṇṇā or Waingaṅgā, now included in the Bālāghāṭ and Bhaṇḍārā districts. Gautamiputra was, therefore, ruling over the country of Beṇākaṭa (or Veṇākaṭa) before he reconquered Western Mahārāṣṭra from the Śaka Satrap Nahapāna.

Gautamīputra was a very powerful king whose kingdom extended from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal and comprised even Māḷvā, Kāṭhiāvāḍ and parts of Rajputānā in the north. His son Puḷumāvī was similarly the undisputed master of the whole Deccan[3]. Yajñaśrī also, a later descendant of the family, retained his hold over the whole territory as his inscriptions and coins have been found in the Ṭhāṇā district in the west and the Kṛṣṇā district in the east. Two hoards of Sātavāhana coins have been found in Vidarbha, one in the Brahmapurī *tahsil* of the Cāndā district[4] and the other at Tarhāḷā in the Māṅgrul *tahsil* of the Akolā district[5]. The latter hoard which was discovered in 1939 contains coins of as many as eleven kings, beginning from Gautamīputra Sātakarṇī. Some of them such as (Gautamīputra) Sātakarṇī, Puḷumāvī, Śivaśrī Puḷumāvī, Yajñaśrī Sātakarṇi and Vijaya Sātakarṇī are mentioned in the *Purāṇas*, while some others such as Kumbha Sātakarṇī and Karṇa Sātakarṇī are not known from any other source. This hoard shows that the Sātavāhanas retained their hold over Vidarbha to the last.

The Sātavāhanas were liberal patrons of learning and religion. As stated above, the early kings performed *Vedic* sacrifices and lavished gifts on Brāhmaṇas. Gautamīputra, Puḷumāvī and Yajñaśrī excavated caves and donated villages to provide for the maintenance, clothing and medicine of Buddhist monks. They also patronised Prākṛt literature. The *Sattasaī*, an anthology of 700 Prākṛt verses is, by tradition, ascribed to Hāla of the Sātavāhana dynasty. Many of the poets and poetesses who contributed to it came from the rural population. Its *gāthās* therefore depict mostly rural scenes and are most interesting.

About A.D. 250 the Sātavāhanas were supplanted by the Vākāṭakas in Vidarbha. This dynasty was founded by a Brāhmaṇa named Vindhyaśakti (I). who is mentioned in the *Purāṇas* as well as in an inscription in Cave XVI at Ajaṇṭā.[6] His son Pravarasena I ruled over an extensive empire in the Deccan.

[1]. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VIII, p. 65 f. Benakataka is also mentioned in a Bharhut inscription, *Ep. Ind.*, Vol XXXIII, f 59.

[2]. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXXII, p. 167 f.

[3]. Pulumavi's inscriptions have been discovered at Nasik, Karle (Poona district) and Amravati. A large number of his coins have also been discovered at Amravati. (*The Age of Imperial Unity*—Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan—pp. 204, 105.)

[4]. *P. A. S. B.* for 1893, pp. 116-17.

[5]. *J. N. S. I.*, Vol. II, p. 83 f.

[6]. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 102 f.

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He performed several *Vedic* sacrifices including four *aśvamedhas* and assumed the title of *Samrāṭ* (Universal Emperor). According to the *Purāṇas*, he had his capital at Purikā,[1] which was situated at the foot of the Ṛkṣavat (Sātapuḍā) mountain.[2] He had four sons among whom his empire was divided after his death. Two of these are known from inscriptions. The eldest son Gautamīputra had predeceased him. His son Rudrasena I held the northern parts of Vidarbha and ruled from Nandivardhana, modern Nandardhan near Rāmṭek. The Amarāvatī district was included in his dominion. He had the powerful support of the Bhāraśiva Nāgas of North India; for their chief Bhavanāga was his maternal grandfather[3]. Rudrasena was a fervent devotee of Mahābhairava. He has left an inscription incised on the aforementioned slab of stone found at Devṭek, which contains a mutilated edict of the *Mahāmātra* of Aśoka. It records his construction of a *Dharma-sthāna* (temple).[4]

Rudrasena I was followed by his son Pṛthivīṣeṇa I, who ruled for a long time and brought peace and prosperity to his people. During his reign the Vākāṭakas became matrimonially connected with the illustrious Gupta family of North India. Candragupta II—Vikramāditya married his daughter Prabhāvatīguptā to Pṛthivīṣeṇa I's son Rudrasena II, probably to secure the powerful Vākāṭaka king's help in his war with the Western Kṣatrapas of Kāṭhiāvāḍ and Māḷvā. Rudrasena II died soon after accession, leaving behind two sons Divākarasena and Dāmodarasena *alias* Pravarasena II[5] As neither of them had come of age, Prabhāvatīguptā ruled as regent for the elder son Divākarasena for at least thirteen years.[6] She seems to have been helped in the government of the kingdom by military and civil officers sent by her father Candragupta II. One of these was the great Sanskṛt poet Kālidāsa. who, while residing at the Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana, appears to have visited Rāmagirī (modern Rāmṭek), where the theme of his excellent lyric *Meghadūta* suggested itself to him.[7]

Prabhāvatīguptā has left us two copper-plate inscriptions. The earlier of them, though discovered in distant Poonā, originally belonged to Vidarbha.[8] It was issued from the then Vākāṭaka capital Nandivardhana and records the dowager queen's grant of the village Daṅguṇa (modern Hiṅgaṇghāṭ) to a Brāhmaṇa after offering it to the Bhāgavat (i.e., Rāmacandra) on *Kārtika Śukla Dvādaśī*, evidently at the time of the *pāraṇā* after observing a fast on the previous day of the *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*. Some of the boundary villages can still be traced in the vicinity of Hiṅgaṇghāṭ.

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1. D. K. A., p. 50. I accept Jayaswal's reading *Purikāṁ Canakāṁ ca vai* in place of *Purim Kāñcanakāṁ ca vai*.
2. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. xviii, f. n. 5.
3. *Ibid.*, p. xx.
4. *Ibid.*, p. 1 f.
5. Some historians hold a different view. They think that he left behind three sons (*The Classical Age*—Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan—p. 180 and f. n. No. 2, p. 180).
6. Mirashi *C. I. I.*, Vol. V., p. 5 f.
7. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 12 f.
8. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 6 f.

Divākarasena also seems to have died when quite young. He was succeeded by his brother Dāmodarasena, who, on accession, assumed the name Pravarasena of his illustrious ancestor. He had a long reign of about thirty years and was known for his learning and liberality. More than a dozen land-grants made by him have come to light. One of them which was made at the instance of his mother Prabhāvatīguptā is noteworthy. It was found at Ṛddhapūr in the Morśī *tahsil* of the Amarāvatī district.[1] The plates were issued from the feet of Rāmagirī-svāmin (i e., the *pādukās* of the god Rāmacandra on the hill of Rāmagirī) and record the grant of some land in the town of Aśvatthanagara (modern Asatpūr in the Acalapūr *tahsil*), which the queen-mother had made as on the previous occasion, viz., after observing a fast on the *Prabodhinī Ekādaśī*

Another grant of Pravarasena II was found at Cammak in the Acalapūr *tahsil* of the Amrāvatī district.[2] It is dated in the eighteenth regnal year and was made at the new capital Pravarapūra. It records the king's donation of 8,000 *nivartanas* of land in the village Carmāṅka (modern Cammak) which was situated on the bank of the Madhunadī in the *rājya* (division) of Bhojakaṭa. The donees are said to have numbered 1,000, but the names of only 49 find mention in the grant. The Madhunadī on the bank of which the village Carmāṅka (Cammak) was situated is now called Candrabhāgā. Bhojakaṭa, the headquarters of the Division which included Carmāṅka, goes now by the name of Bhātkulī as already stated.

Pravarasena II founded a new city which he named Pravarapūra and where he shifted his capital sometime after his eleventh regnal year. Some of his later land-grants, including that recorded in the Cammak plates, were made at the new capital He built there a magnificent temple of Ramacandra evidently at the instance of his mother who was like her father Candragupta II, a devout worshipper of Viṣṇu. Some of the panels used to decorate this temple have recently been discovered at Pavnār on the bank of the Dhām six miles from Wardhā, and have thus led to the identification of Pravarapūra with Pavnār.[3] The discovered panels illustrate various scenes from the *Rāmāyaṇa*.

Pravarasena II, like several of his ancestors, was a devotee of Maheśvara (Śiva), but he is credited with the composition of the Prākṛt *kāvya Setubandha* or *Rāvaṇavadha* in glorification of Rāmacandra.[4] He must have done this at the instance of his mother Prabhāvatīguptā. According to a tradition recorded by a later commentator, the work was composed by Kālidāsa, who ascribed it to Pravarasena. This work has been greatly praised

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1. Mirashi *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 33 f.
2. *Ibid.*, p. 22 f.
3. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p 272 f.
4. This view is not completely accepted. Pravarsena's authorship of the Setubandha may not be altogether impossible but it is rendered doubtful by the fact that while the theme of the Kavya is Vaishnava, the king was a devotee of Shiva. (*The Classical Age*. pp. 183-84).

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by Sanskṛt poets and rhetoricians. Pravarasena II is also known to have composed Sanskṛt verses and Prākṛt *gāthās*. The latter were later incorporated under his name in the *Sattasai*[1].

Pravarasena II was succeeded by his son Narendrasena, during whose reign Vidarbha was invaded by the Nala king Bhavadattavarman. The Nalas were ruling over the Bastār district of Madhya Pradeś and the adjoining parts of the Vizagāpatam district of Āndhra Pradeś. This country is called Mahākāntāra in the Allāhābād pillar inscription of Samudragupta. The Gupta invader defeated the contemporary king named Vyāghrarāja, but later restored his kingdom to him. From a hoard of gold coins recently discovered at Edenga in the Bastār district, we know of three kings of the Nala dynasty, viz., Varāha, Bhavadatta and Arthapati[2]. Bhavadatta invaded Vidarbha and penetrated as far as Nandivardhana, the erstwhile capital of the Vākāṭakas. A set of copper plates discovered at Ṛddhapūr in the Amarāvatī district record the grant of the village Kadaṁbagirīgrāma which Bhavadatta had made while on a pilgrimage to Prayāga[3]. The plates were issued by his son Arthapati from the then capital Nandivardhana. Kadaṁbagirīgrāma is Kaḷamb in the Yeotmāḷ district. This grant shows that the Nala king had occupied a considerable portion of North Vidarbha. In this emergency the Vākāṭakas had to shift their capital again. They moved it to Padmapura, modern Padampūr near Amgāṅv in the Bhaṇḍārā district. An unfinished copper-plate grant which was proposed to be made at Padmapura has been discovered at the village of Mohalla in the adjoining Durga district of Madhya Pradeś[4].

The Nalas could not retain their hold over Vidarbha for a long time. They were ousted by Narendrasena's son Pṛthivīṣeṇa II, who carried the war into the enemy's territory and burnt and devastated Puṣkarī, the capital of the Nalas, which was situated somewhere in the Bastār district[5]. Pṛthivīṣeṇa II, taking advantage of the weakening of the Gupta power, carried his arms to the north of the Narmadā. Inscriptions of his feudatory Vyāghradeva have been found in the former Ajayagadh and Jaso States in Central India[6].

This elder branch of the Vākāṭaka family came to an end about A.D. 490. The territory of Northern Vidarbha including the Amarāvatī district was thereafter included in the dominion of the Vatsagulma branch of the family to whose history we may now turn.

This branch was founded by Sarvasena, a younger son of Pravarasena I. It had its capital at the holy city of Vatsagulma,

1. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 81 f.
2. *J. N. S. I.*, Vol. I, p. 29 f.
3. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XIX, p. 100 f.
4. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 75 f.
5. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXI, p. 153 f.
6. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. 88 f.

modern Vāśim in the Akolā district. Its dominion extended to the Godāvarī in the south and included the Nānded[1] and Parbhaṇī districts of Marāṭhvāḍā. This branch also produced some brave and learned princes. Sarvasena, the founder of this branch, is well-known as the author of the Prākṛt *kāvya Harivijaya*, which has received unstinted praise from several eminent rhetoricians.[2] The last known prince of this branch was Hariṣeṇa, who carved out an extensive empire for himself, extending from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal and from Māḷvā to the Tuṅgabhadrā[3].

The Vākāṭakas were patrons of art and literature. In their age. the Vaidarbhī *rīti* came to be regarded as the best style of poetry as several excellent works were then produced in Vidarbha. Some of the Vākāṭaka princes such as *Yuvarāja* Divākarasena and king Pravarasena II are the reputed authors of some good Sanskṛt *subhāṣitas*. Two excellent Prākṛt *kāvyas*, viz., the *Setubandha* and the *Harivijaya* were also composed in this age, the former by Pravarasena II and the latter by Sarvasena.[4] Three of the caves at Ajaṇṭā, viz, the two *Vihāra* Caves. Nos. XVI and XVII and the *Caitya* Cave No. XIX were excavated and decorated with fresco paintings during the reign of Hariṣeṇa[5]. Several temples of Hindu gods and goddesses were also built. The ruins of one of them, dedicated to Rāmacandra have been discovered at Pavnār near Wardhā.[6] Others are known from references in copper-plate grants.

The Vākāṭakas disappear from the stage of history about A.D. 550, when their place is taken by the Kalacuris of Māhiṣmatī. modern Māheśvar in Central India. They also had a large empire extending from Koṅkaṇ in the west to Vidarbha in the east and from Māḷvā in the north to the Kṛṣṇā in the south. The founder of this dynasty was Kṛṣṇarāja. A large hoard of his silver coins was discovered at Dhamori in the Amarāvatī district. These coins have on the obverse the bust of the king facing right and on the reverse inside a circle of dots the legend *Paramamāheśvara-mātā-pitṛ-pādānudhyāta-śrī-Kṛṣṇarāja* meaning that the coin was of the illustrious Kṛṣṇarāja, a devout worshipper of Maheśvara, who meditated on the feet of his father and mother[7]. These coins have been found also at Pattan in the Betūl district which was included in Vidarbha. They were in circulation over a very wide area extending from Māḷvā and Rājputānā in the north to the district of Sātārā and Nāsik in the south and from the islands of Bombay and Sāṣṭī in the west to the districts of Amarāvatī and Betūl in the east. From the Añjanerī plates of the Hariścandrīya king Bhogaśakti we

1. Mirashi, *C. I. I.* Vol. V, p. 93 f.
2. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 99 f.
3. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. VI, p. 102 f.
4. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology* Vol. I, p. 96 f.
5. Mirashi. *C. I. I.*, Vol. V, p. lxv f.
6. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p 272 f.
7. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol, IV, p. clxxx f.

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know that they remained in circulation for at least 150 years after Kṛṣṇarāja.[1] That Eastern Vidarbha also was included in his empire is shown by the Nagardhana plates of his feudatory Svāmirāja dated in the Kalacuri year 322 (A.D. 573).[2] These plates were issued from Nandivardhana, which seems to have retained its importance even after the downfall of the Vākāṭakas. Svāmirāja probably belonged to the Rāṣṭrakūṭa family.

About A.D. 620 the Kalacuri king Buddharāja, the grandson of the aforementioned Kṛṣṇarāja, was defeated by Pulakeśin II of the Early Cālukya dynasty, who thereafter became the lord of three Mahārāṣṭras comprising 99,000 villages[3]. One of these Mahārāṣṭras was undoubtedly Vidarbha. The Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Vidarbha, who were previously feudatories of the Kalacuris, transferred their allegiance to the Cālukyas and like the latter, began to date their records in the *Śaka* era. Two grants of this feudatory Rāṣṭrakūṭa family have been discovered in Vidarbha, one dated *Śaka* 615 found at Sangalud[4] in the Akolā district and the other dated *Śaka* 631 discovered at Multāi[5]. They gave the following genealogy:—

Durgrāja
||
Govindarāja
|
Svāmikarāja
|
Nannarāja

(Known dates A.D. 693 and 713)

The earlier capital of these feudatory Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Vidarbha was Nandivardhana, but later it seems to have been shifted to Acalapūra in the Amarāvatī district. This place is not mentioned in either of the above two grants, but its name occurs as the place of issue in a third grant of Nannarāja which, however, is proved to be spurious.[6] Acalapūra continued to be the capital of these feudatory Rāṣṭrakūṭas for a long time as shown by later references to events in their history.

About the middle of the eighth century A.D. the Cālukyas were overthrown by the Rāṣṭrakūṭas. No inscriptions of the Early Cālukyas have been found in Vidarbha, but their successors, the Rāṣṭrakūṭas have left us several records. The earliest of these is the Bhāṇḍak copper-plate inscription of Kṛṣṇa I, dated in the *Śaka* year 694 (A.D. 772). It records Udumbaramantī, modern Rāṇī Amarāvatī in the Yeotmāḷ district.[7]. Thereafter

[1]. *Loc. cit.*

[2]. *Ibid.*, Vol. IV, p. 611 f.

[3]. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. VI, p. 1 f.

[4]. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXIX, p. 109 f.

[5]. *Ind. Ant.*, Vol. XVIII, p. 230 f.

[6]. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XI, p. 276 f.; Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. II, p. 25 f.

[7]. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XIV, p. 121 f.

several grants of his grandson Govinda III have been found in the Akolā and Amarāvatī districts of Vidarbha. Of these the earliest in point of date is that found at Añjanavatī, a village in the Cāndūr *tahsil* of the Amarāvatī district.[1] The grant was made by Govinda III at his capital Mayurakhaṇḍī on the occasion of a *tulā-puruṣa* gift at the time of a solar eclipse in the *Śaka* year 722 (A.D. 800). The only solar eclipse in that year was that which occurred on the New Moon day of *Āṣāḍha* (25th June A.D. 800). By this time Govinda had finished his northern campaigns. The village donated on this occasion was Añjanavatī, which still retains its old name. It was situated in the *viṣaya* (district) of Acalapūra. Some of the neighbouring villages mentioned in the grant can also be identified in the vicinity of Añjanavatī. Thus Gohasodva is Gahva, 1½ miles to the south. Sallaimāla is now represented by two villages, viz., Salora and Amlā which lie to the west and south-west respectively. Kure is modern Kurhā, 3 miles to the north-west and Vatapūra is Vadur, about a mile east of Kurhā. Veyaghana and Talevāṭaka from which the donees hailed are now represented by Waigāṅv, 3 miles south, and Taḷegāṅv about 10 miles south by west of Añjanavatī.

Three more copper-plate inscriptions of the reign of Govinda III have been found at Sirso, a village in the neighbouring Akolā district. They record the grants of the villages Jharikā[2], Lohāra[3] and Sīsavai[4] and are dated in the *Śaka* years 725, 729 and 734, respectively.

The Rāṣṭrakūṭas of Mānyakheṭa and the Kalacuris of Tripurī were matrimonially connected and their relations were generally friendly[5]. But in the reign of Govinda IV, they became strained. The Kalacuri king Yuvarājadeva I espoused the cause of his son-in-law Baddiga-Amoghavarṣa III, the uncle of Govinda IV, and sent a large army to invade Vidarbha, whose ruler Karkarāja was loyal to Govinda IV. A pitched battle was fought on the bank of the Pāyoṣṇī, 10 miles from Karkarāja's capital Acalapūra, between the Kalacuri and Rāṣṭrakūṭa forces, in which the former became victorious. This event is commemorated in the Sanskṛt play *Viddhaśālabhañjikā* of Rājaśekhara, which was staged at Tripurī in jubilation at this victory. The battle of Pāyoṣṇī was fought in *circa* A.D. 935[6].

A later grant of the Rāṣṭrakūṭas was found at Devli in the Wardhā district[7]. It belongs to the reign of Baddiga-Amoghavarṣa's son Kṛṣṇa III and is dated *Śaka* 852 (A D. 940-41). It is of interest as it mentions the *viṣaya* Nāgapūra-Nandivardhana, in which the donated village was situated. This Nāgapūra may have marked the ancient site of the modern capital of Vidarbha.

1. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXIII, p. 8 f.
2. *Ibid*, Vol. XXIII, p. 157 f.
3. *Ibid*, Vol. XXIII, p. 205 f.
4. *Ibid*, Vol. XXII, p. 212 f.
5. Mirashi, *C. I. I.*, Vol. IV, p. lxxxi, f. n. 4
6. *Ibid*, Vol. IV, p. lxxix f.
7. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. V, p. 188 f.

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The Rāṣṭrakūṭas were succeeded by the Later Cālukyas of Kalyāṇī. Only two inscriptions of this family have been found in Vidarbha. One of them, the so-called Sitābalḍi stone inscription, seems to have originally belonged to the Vindhyasana hill at Bhāṇḍak, where it was noticed by Vinayakrav Aurangabadkar[1]. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1008 (A.D. 1087) and registers the grant of some *nivartanas* of land made by a feudatory named Dhāḍībhāṇḍaka. This record is of the reign of the Later Cālukya king Vikramāditya VI. Another inscription of the same reign was recently discovered at Doṅgargāṅv in the Yeotmāḷ district[2]. It sheds interesting light on the history of the Paramāra dynasty. It now seems clear that Jagaddeva, the youngest son of Udayāditya, the brother of Bhoja, left Māḷvā and sought service with Vikramāditya VI, who welcomed him and placed him in charge of some portion of Western Vidarbha. This inscription is dated in the *Śaka* year 1034 (A.D. 1112).

Though Western Vidarbha was thus occupied by the later Cālukyas, the Paramāras of Dhār seem to have raided and occupied some portion of Eastern Vidarbha. A large stone inscription, now deposited in the Nāgpūr Museum, which originally seems to have belonged to Bhāṇḍak in the Cāndā district, traces the genealogy of the Paramāra prince Naravarman from Vairisiṁha[3]. It is dated in the Vikrama year 1161, corresponding to A.D. 1104-5, and records the grant of two villages to a temple which was probably situated at Bhāṇḍak; for the villages can be identified in its vicinity. Thus Mokhalipāṭaka is probably Mokhara, 50 miles west of Bhāṇḍak, and Vyāpura, the name of the *maṇḍala* in which it was situated, may be represented by Wurgāṅv, 30 miles north-east of Mokhara.

After the downfall of the Vakāṭākas, there was no Imperial family ruling in Vidarbha. The centre of political power shifted successively to Māhiṣmatī, Badāmī and Kalyāṇī. Men of learning who could not get royal patronage in Vidarbha, had to seek it elsewhere. Bhavabhūti, who ranks in Sanskṛt literature as next only to Kālidāsa, was a native of Vidarbha[4]. In the prologue of his play *Mahāvīracarita* he tells us that his ancestors lived in Padmapura in Vidarbha. As stated above, this place was once the capital of the Vākāṭakas and is probably identical with the village Padampūr in the Bhanḍārā district. With the downfall of the Vākāṭakas, this place lost its importance. In the beginning of the eighth century when Bhavabhūti flourished, there was no great king ruling in Vidarbha. Bhavabhūti had, therefore, to go to Padmāvatī, the capital of the Nāgas in North India, and had to get his plays staged at the fair of *Kālapriyanāth* (the Sun-god at Kalpi)[5]. Later, he

[1]. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. III, p. 304 f.
[2]. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXVI, p. 127 f.
[3]. *Ibid*, Vol. II, p. 180 f.
[4]. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 21 f.
[5]. *Ibid*, Vol. I, *p*. 35 *f*.

obtained royal patronage at the Court of Yaśovarman of Kanauj. Rājaśekhara, another great son of Vidarbha, was probably born at Vatsagulma (modern Vāśīm), which he has glorified in his *Kāvyamīmāṁsā* as the pleasure-resort of the god of love. He and his ancestors Akālajalada, Tarala and Surānanda had to leave their home country of Vidarbha and to seek patronage at the court of the Kalacuris at Tripurī. Rajaśekhara's early plays, viz., the *Bālarāmāyaṇa*, the *Bālabhārata* and the *Karpūramañjarī*, were staged at Kanauj under the patronage of the Gurjara-Pratīhāras[1]. Later, when the glory of the Pratīhāras declined as a result of the raids of the Kalacuri king Yuvarājadeva I, Rājaśekhara seems to have returned to Tripurī in the train of the victorious conqueror. There, his last play *Karpūramañjarī* was staged in jubilation at the victory of Yuvarājadeva over a confederacy of Southern kings led by Govinda IV, in the battle of the Pāyoṣṇī. Another great poet of Vidarbha who had to go abroad in search of royal patronage is Trivikramabhaṭṭa, the author of the *Nalacampū*, in which he has given a graphic description of several towns, holy places and rivers of Vidarbha. He flourished at the court of the Rāṣṭrakūṭa king Indra III and is known to have drafted the two sets of the Bāgumrā plates of that king[2].

In the last quarter of the twelfth century A.D. the Yādavas of Devagirī came into prominence. They had been ruling over Seuṇadeśa in an earlier period as feudatories of the Later Cālukyas, but Bhillama, the son of Mallugī, declared his independence and soon made himself master of the whole territory north of the Kṛṣṇā. He then founded the city of Devagirī, which he made his capital. His son Jaitrapāla killed Rudradeva of the Kākatīya dynasty on the field of battle and released his nephew Gaṇapati whom he had put into prison. Under Jaitrapāla's son Siṅghaṇa, the power of the family greatly increased. He annexed the Kolhāpūr kingdom after defeating the Śilāhāra king Bhoja[3]. The first inscription of the Yādavas found in Vidarbha belongs to the reign of Siṅghaṇa. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1132 and records the erection of a *toraṇa* at Ambaḍāpura (modern Amdāpūr) in the Buldhāṇā district of Vidarbha[4]. Many of the victories of Siṅghaṇa were won for him by his *Senāpati* Kholeśvara, who hailed from Vidarbha[5]. He was the son of Trivikrama and Candrā, who lived in the *agrahāra* village of Udumbarapaṅkti (modern Rāṇī Amarāvatī). Kholeśvara won several victories. He defeated Lakṣmīdeva, the ruler of Bhambhāgirī (modern Bhāmer in Khāndeś), Paramāra Bhoja of Cāhanda (modern Cāndā) and Arjunavarmadeva, king of Māḷvā, and devastated the capital of the Hoysaḷas. He even pressed as far as Vārāṇasī in the north where he put Rāmapāla

[1]. Mirashi, *Studies in Indology*, Vol. I, p. 54 f.
[2]. *Ibid.*, Vol. IX, p. 24 f.
[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 203.
[4]. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXI, p. 127 f.
[5]. G. H. Khare, *Sources of the Mediaeval History of the Deccan* (Marathi), Vol. I.

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to fight. Kholeśvara constructed several temples in Vidarbha and Āmradeśa (modern Āmbejogāī in Marāṭhvāḍā). He also established *agrahāras* on the banks of the Pāyoṣṇī (modern Pūrṇā) and Varadā (Wardhā). One of the *agrahāras* named Kholāpūr on the bank of the Pāyoṣṇī is still extant under its ancient name in the Amarāvatī district. He also constructed a temple of Viṣṇu under the name of Śārṅgadhārin at Acalapūra.

Siṅghaṇa was succeeded by his grandson Kṛṣṇa, whose inscription has been found in the temple of Khaṇḍeśvar on a hillock on the outskirts of the village Nāndgāṅv in the Amarāvatī district[1]. It is dated in the *Śaka* year 1177 (A.D. 1254-55) and records the donation of some *gadyāṇakas* for the offerings of flowers at the temple of Khaṇḍeśvar. After Kṛṣṇa's death, the throne was occupied by his brother Mahādeva, superseding the claims of the former's son Rāmacandra. Mahādeva annexed Koṅkaṇ to his kingdom after defeating Someśvara of the Śilāhāra dynasty. He left the throne to his son Āmaṇa, but the latter was soon deposed by Rāmacandra, who captured the impregnable fort of Devagirī by means of a *coup d'état*[2]. He is the last of the Hindu Emperors of Devagirī. He won several victories and in his minister's Puruṣottamapuri plates he is said to have driven out the Muhammadans from Vārānasī and built a golden temple there, which he dedicated to Viṣṇu[3]. A fragmentary inscription of his time is built into the front wall of the temple of Lakṣmaṇa on the hill at Rāmṭek[4]. In the first half of it, which is very much mutilated it describes the exploits of Rāmacandra's ancestors from Siṅghaṇa onwards and in the second half it describes the temples, wells and *tirthas* on and in the vicinity of the hill which it named as Rāmagirī. The object of the inscription seems to have been to record the repairs done to the temple of Lakṣmaṇa by Rāghava, a minister of Rāmacandra. Another inscription of Rāmacandra's reign was found at Lāñjī in the Bālāghāṭ district. It is fragmentary and has not yet been deciphered.

In A.D. 1294 Alā-ud-din Khiljī invaded the kingdom of Rāmacandra and suddenly appeared before the gates of Devagirī. Rāmacandra was taken unawares and could not hold out for long. He had to pay a large ransom to the Muslim invader. He continued to rule till A.D. 1310 at least; for a copper-plate grant which his minister Puruṣottam made is dated in the *Śaka* year 1232[4]. He was succeeded by his son Saṅkaragaṇa sometime in A.D. 1311. He discontinued sending the stipulated tribute to Delhi. He was defeated and slain by Malik Kāfūr. Sometime thereafter, Harapāladeva, the son-in-law of Rāmacandra raised an insurrection and drove away the Muhammadans, but his success was short-lived. The Hindu Kingdom of Devagirī thus came to an end in A.D. 1318.

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1. *Ep. Ind.*, Vol. XXVII, p. 9 f.

2. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 205 f.

3. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 207.

4. *Ibid.*, Vol. XXV, p. 199 f.

Like their illustrious predecessors, the Yādavas also extended liberal patronage to art and literature. During their age a peculiar style of architecture called *Hemāḍpantī* after Hemādri or Hemāḍpant, a minister of Mahādeva and Rāmacandra, came into vogue. Temples built in this style have been found in all the districts of Vidarbha. The temple at Lāsur in the Amarāvati district is of this type[1]. Several learned scholars flourished at the court of the Yādavas. Among those who hailed from Vidarbha, Hemādri was the foremost. During the reign of Mahādeva he held the post of Śrī-karaṇādhipa or Head of the Secretariat. He was appointed Minister and Head of the Elephant Force by Rāmacandra. He was as brave as he was learned and liberal. He conquered and annexed to the Yādava kingdom the eastern part of Vidarbha called Jhāḍī-maṇḍala. Hemādri is well-known as the author of the *Caturvargacintāmaṇi* comprising five parts, viz., (1) Vratakhaṇḍa, (2) Dānakhaṇḍa, (3) Tīrthakhaṇḍa, (4) Mokṣakhaṇḍa and (5) Pariśeṣakhaṇḍa. Of these, the third and fourth *Khaṇḍas* have not yet come to light. Hemādri's work is held in great esteem and has been drawn upon by later writers on Dharmaśāstra. Hemādri wrote on other subjects also. He is the author of a commentary on Śaunaka's *Praṇavakalpa* and also of a *Śrāddhakalpa* in which he follows Kātyāyana. His *Āyurvedarasāyana*, a commentary on Vāgbhaṭa's *Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya*, and *Kaivalyadīpikā*, a gloss on Bopadeva's Muktāphala, are also well-known.

Hemādri extended liberal patronage to learned men. Among his proteges, the most famous was Bopadeva. He was a native of the village Vedapada (modern Belod) on the bank of the Wardha in the Ādilābād district of the former Hyderābād State. Bopadeva is said to have composed ten works on Sanskṛt grammar, nine on medicine, one for the determination of *tithis*, three on poetics and an equal number for the elucidation of the Bhāgavata doctrine. Only eight of these works are now extant. The *Mugdhabodha*, his work on Sanskṛt grammar, is very popular in Bengal.

Marāṭhī literature also flourished in the age of the Yādavas. Cakradhara, who propagated the Mahānubhāva cult in that age, used Marāṭhī as the vehicle of his religious teachings. Following his example several of his followers composed literary works in Marāṭhī. They are counted among the first works of Marāṭhī literature. Mukundarāja, the author of the Vedantic works *Vivekasindhu* and *Paramāmṛta*, and Jñāneśvara, the celebrated author of the *Bhāvārthadīpikā*, a commentary on the *Bhagavadgītā* are the most illustrious writers of that age.

MEDIAEVAL PERIOD

Invasion of the Deccan.

In 1294 Alā-ud-din, governor of the province, of which Kara on the Gaṅgā. 42 miles north-west of Allāhābād, was the capital, and nephew and son-in-law of Jalāl-ud-din Firoz Śāh Khiljī, the reigning emperor of Delhi, having assembled an army ostensibly for the purpose of punishing a refractory Hindu chief on the borders of his province, suddenly invaded the Deccan without the knowledge or consent of his uncle. His objective was Devagirī, of

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[1] *A. R. A. S. I.* for 1921-22, pl. IX.

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the wealth of which kingdom he had heard in the course of his forays in Central India. He marched from Kara to Canderi, and thence across the Sātpuḍās to Ellicpūr, where he halted for two days, explaining his presence by saying that he was one Malik-Alā-ud-din, who had been one of the nobles of the emperor of Delhi, but was now leaving his master with the intention of taking service with the *rājā* of Rājamahendri in Telaṅgaṇā. His story served its purpose and he was not molested at Ellicpūr, which he left suddenly at midnight, advancing by forced marches towards Devagirī. It is unnecessary to recount the details of his successful raid. Alā-ud-din not only carried off from Devagirī an enormous quantity of plunder, but was strong enough to insist on the assignment of the revenue of Ellicpūr and the districts attached thereto, which probably included the whole of the Amarāvatī district and the rest of northern Berār. Annexation was not attempted, nor were Muhammadans introduced into the administration[1]. Treasure was all that Alā-ud-din required for his immediate needs, and this the adventurer obtained in plenty.

Alā-ud-din ascends the throne.

Alā-ud-din on his return marched through Berār[2]. He murdered his uncle and ascended the throne of Delhi on October 3, 1296. During his reign Berār was traversed by Muhammadan armies from Delhi marching on expeditions to the Deccan, but we find no special mention of the province. In 1306, an expedition under the African, Kāfūr Hazārdinarī was sent against Devagirī in consequence of Rāmacandra having failed to remit tribute and having allied himself with Rāi Karṇa of Gujarāt, who had refused to send his daughter Deval Devī to Delhi[3]. Rāmacandra and his family were captured and sent to Delhi, but the emperor pardoned him and restored him to his throne, and it does not appear that the arrangement under which Ellicpūr and northern Berār remained under Hindu administrators charged with the remission of the revenue to Delhi was disturbed.

Rāmacandra died in 1310 and was succeeded by his eldest son Śaṅkar, who rebelled against Delhi and refused to remit the tribute. In 1312 Kāfūr, now entitled Malik Nāib, led an expedition to Devagirī, defeated and slew Śaṅkar, and annexed his kingdom, including Berār, to the empire. The Amarāvatī district thus came for the first time directly under Muhammadan administration.

Rebellion in Devagirī.

Alā-ud-din Khiljī died on January 2, 1316, and in the confusion which followed his death and the subsequent assassination of Malik Nāib, Harpāl, the son-in-law of Rāmacandra, seized Devagiri and ruled it for a short time as an independent king, bringing Berār once again under Hindu rule; but by 1316 affairs at Delhi had been settled and Kutub-ud-din Mubārak Śāh, who was then on the throne, marched southwards, attacked Harpāl, captured him and caused him to be flayed, and placed his head

1. W. Haig, pp. 96-97.

2. Yadav Madhav Kale, *Varhadacha Etihasa*, (1924), p. 81.

3. Briggs, I, p. 366; Haig, p. 112.

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above one of the gates of Devagiri[1]. Amarāvatī thus passed again, with the rest of Berār, into the hands of the Musalmāns, and the province remained nominally under Muhammadan rule and administration until it was assigned under the treaty of 1853 to the East India Company.

Rebellion in Devagiri.

Malik Yaklākī was appointed governor of the reconquered provinces and shortly afterwards rebelled. We are not told what part the officers in Berār took in the rebellion, which was suppressed.

Kutub-ud-din Mubārak Śāh was assassinated by Malik Khusrāv on April 14, 1320. Khusrāv ascended the throne but he was defeated and slain on September 5, 1320, by Ghāzī-Beg Tughlak, the Turki Governor of the Punjāb[2], who was raised to the imperial throne under the title of Ghiyās-ud-din Tughlak Śāh. The expeditions to the Deccan in his reign are not directly connected with the history of Berār, but the resources of the province were doubtless taxed in an effort to furnish supplies for the armies from Delhi. Tughlak died in February or March, 1325 and was succeeded by his son, Muhammad-bin-Tughlak, who in 1339 transferred the capital of the empire from Delhi to Devagiri, which he renamed Daulatābād[3]. It is likely that the importance of Berār, which now adjoined the district in which the capital of the empire was situated, was temporarily enhanced by this change, but Daulatābād did not long remain the capital.

Organization of the provinces of the Deccan.

Mahārāṣṭra was now divided into four *śikks* or provinces, and though the limits of these are not mentioned it is probable that they corresponded roughly with the four *tarafs* or provinces into which the Bahamanī kingdom was afterwards divided, and that Berar, with its capital at Ellichpūr, formed one of them. The land revenue of the whole tract was assessed at seven crores of 'white *tankas*' of 175 grains each, or about Rs. 35,00,000. This assessment seems to have been excessive, for we read that the action of the *śikkdars* or provincial governors in collecting it caused widespread discontent and a partial depopulation of the country. The *śikkdārs* were Malik Sardavatdar, Malik Mukhlis-ul-Mulk, Yusuf Bughrā, and Aziz Himār or Khammār, but the names of their provinces are not given. All were subordinate to Kutlugh Khān, governor of Daulatābād, whose deputy was Imād-ul-Mulk, but Kutlugh Khān was recalled very soon after his settlement had been made, and it was then that the oppression of the *śikkdārs* became unbearable. Immediately subordinate to these *śikkdārs* was a class of officials styled centurions, military officers who also performed such civil duties as the collection of the revenue, the prevention and detection of crime, and the maintenance of order.

Rebellion of Amīrs of the Deccan.

In 1347 Muhammad-bin-Tughlak marched to Gujarāt to quell a rebellion which had broken out among the centurions of the

1. Briggs, p 389; Haig, p. 121.
2. Haig, pp. 125-26.
3. Haig, p. 150.

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Rebellion of Amīrs of the Deccan.

province and, having quietened Gujarāt, summoned the centurions of the Deccan, intending to replace those of Gujarāt with them but the officers of the Deccan whose loyalty was not above suspicion feared that they were being called for punishment, and when they had travelled one day's march towards Broach, where they had been ordered to assemble, they slew the officers who had been sent to summon them and returned to Daulatābād. Here they rose in rebellion and elected Ismāil Fateh, the Afghān, king of the Deccan, with the title of Nasir-ud-din[1] Śāh. This news at once brought Muhammad-bin-Tughlak from Broach to Daulatābād. He defeated the rebels in the field, but the new king took refuge in the fort and Muhammad was unable to capture the place. Besides, news soon arrived that a rebellion had broken out afresh in Gujarāt[2], which compelled him to return thither, leaving an army to besiege Daulatābād. This army was defeated and the *amīrs* of the Deccan, on Nasir-ud-din abdicating, elected as their king, Hasan, styled Zafar Khān, who ascended the throne as Alā-ud-din Bahman Śāh[3] on August 3, 1347.

The Bahamanīs.

Bahman Śāh, the founder of the Bahamanī dynasty of the Deccan, divided his kingdom into four *tarafs* or provinces, each under the governorship of a *tarafdār* or provincial governor. The provinces were Berār, Daulatābād, Bidar, and Gulburgā[4]. We have, unfortunately, very little information as to the details of provincial administration, but it is known that the powers of the *tarafdārs* were very extensive. The *tarafdārs* of Berār, whose headquarters were at Ellicpūr, governed a tract of country far larger than the modern province. Berār which, east of Burhāṇpūr, was bounded on the north by the Tāpī and on the east by the Wardhā and Pranhitā rivers, and extended on the south to the southern Pūrṇā and Godāvarī rivers and on the west approximately to its present limits[5]. In this large province the governor was almost independent He commanded the provincial army, collected the revenues, and made all appointments, both civil and military, including appointments to the command of forts, which were among the most important of all. His duties to the central authority seem to have been confined to the regular remission of a proportion of the revenue and to attending on his sovereign with the army of the province, whenever he might be called upon to do so. We know little or nothing of the administrative divisions of Berār in these early days, but it was probably divided into two principal divisions, one on the north, with its capital at Ellicpūr and one on the south with its capital at Māhūr[6]. The existing *paragaṇās* date. almost certainly, from the

[1]. So styled by Ferishta; Badaoni and the author of the *Burhan-i-Maasir* call him Nasir-ud-din. Briggs, I, p. 438; II, 289.

[2]. Haig., *Turks and Afghans*, 169.

[3]. This was his correct title, as a contemporary inscription and legend on coins show. The fantastic epithets bestowed on him by various historians are connected with foolish stories. Haig, *Turks and Afghans*, f. n., pp. 170-71; 372-73.

[4]. Haig, pp. 374-75.

[5]. Haig, *op. cit.*, pp. 374-75.

[6]. Haig, p. 383.

period of Hindu rule, and the *sardārs* described in the Ain-i-*Akbari* were perhaps a legacy from the days of the Bahamanīs.

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The Bahamanīs.

Muhammad Śāh Bahamanī, who succeeded his father in 1358, elaborated the organization of the four *tarafs* and gave to each *tarafdār* a distinctive title, the governor of Berār being styled Majilis-i-Ali.

Safdar Khān, Governor of Berār.

The first governor of Berār under the Bahamanīs was a Persian, Safdar Khān Sistānī. In 1362 he commanded the army of the province in Muhammad Śāh's expedition into Telaṅgaṇa and was absent from Berār on this occasion for two years[1]. In 1366, while Muhammad Śāh was waging war against Vijayanagar, Bahrām Khān Mājindarāṇi, deputy governor of Daulatābād, broke into rebellion at the instigation of Koṇḍbā Dev, a Marāṭhā, and several of the nobles of Berār, who were related to Bahrām Khān, were involved in the rebellion with him. The rebellion was suppressed and its leaders made good their escape into Gujarāt. At this time highway robbery seems to have been rife in the Deccan, for Muhammad Śāh found it necessary to issue special orders to the *tarafdārs* for the suppression of the crime. The remedy was drastic. The malefactors were beheaded and their heads were sent to the capital. Twenty thousand heads were thus collected at Gulburgā, and we may presume that Safdar Khān sent his share[2].

The provinces were not neglected in the reign of Muhammad I, who toured in one of them every year unless occupied in war. and hunted for three or four months. This information may appear trifling, but it enables us to understand to some extent how Berār was governed in former days and how it was that a kingdom organized as was that of the Bahamanīs did not fall to pieces sooner than it did.

Mujāhid Śāh.

Muhammad I died in 1377[3] and was succeeded by his elder son, Mujāhid Śāh. who made war against Bukka I of Vijayanagar. Safdar Khān was summoned to the capital with the army of Berār and was sent to besiege Adoni. Bukka I was defeated before this fortress fell and the siege was relinquished. Mujāhid Śāh returned slowly through the Rāicūr *Doāb*, hunting as he went, and Safdar Khān and the governor of Bidar, knowing his rash and impetuous disposition, exerted themselves to restrain him from running needless risks in his sport. The king wearied of their good advice and much against their will, ordered them to return to their provinces. The two governors pursued their way slowly and unwillingly, and shortly after their departure Mujāhid was assassinated, on April 15, 1378[4], at the instigation of his uncle, Dāud, whom he had offended during the campaign against the Hindus. Dāud hastened to Gulburgā in order to ascend the throne, but Safdar Khān and the governor of Bidar

1. Haig, I. pp. 305, 309.
2. Briggs, II, pp. 325, 326; Haig, p. 383.
3. Ferishta however refers to 21st March 1375 as the date of death of Muhammad Shah I.
4. Haig, 384; Ferishta, however, gives the date as April 14, 1378.

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refused to attend him there and turned aside to Bijāpūr, where the royal elephants were stationed. They seized these, divided them between themselves, and returned to their provinces with them. Dāud Śāh was assassinated on May 20, 1378[1], and was succeeded by his nephew, Muhammad Śāh II[2].

The Bahamanīs. *Muhammad Śāh II.*

On the accession of Muhammad II, Safdar Khān and the governor of Bidar made their submission and hastened to the capital to offer him their congratulations. Early in his reign there was a severe famine in Berār and the Deccan. A school for famine orphans was established at Ellicpūr, where the children were brought up in the Muhammadan faith, and special allowances were given in all towns to religious teachers and to the blind.

Salābat Khān, Governor of Berār.

Muhammad II died on April 20, 1397, and was succeeded by his elder son, Ghiyās-ud-din, who was 17 years of age[3]. In his reign Safdar Khān Sistānī, the governor of Berār, died in Ellicpūr. His son, Salābat Khān, who had been a playfellow of the young king, was appointed governor of Berār in his father's place, with the title of Majilis-i-Āli. On June 14, 1397, Ghiyās-ud-din was blinded and deposed and his brother Śams-ud-din was placed on the throne. He, however, was deposed and imprisoned at the end of the year and was succeeded by his cousin, Tāj ud-din Firoz Śāh. The army of Berār, under Salābat Khān, took part in Firoz Śāh's campaign against Harihara II of Vijayanagar in 1398-99. The campaign was eminently successful and Firoz Śāh on his return left Pulad Khān, another son of Safdar Khān Sistānī, in charge of the Rāicūr *Doāb*[4]. But

War with Kherlā.

on this occasion the absence of the governor from Berār produced disastrous results, for Narsingh Dev, the Goṇḍ Rājā of Kherlā, had overrun the province from north to south and occupied it. Firoz Śāh hastened northwards and, after recapturing Māhūr, pressed on towards Kherlā by way of Ellicpūr. Here he halted and sent on an army under the command of his brother Ahmad Khān, the Khān-i-Khānān, to punish the Goṇḍs. Ahmad advanced to within a short distance of Kherlā and was met by the Goṇḍ troops under Narsingh Dev. The Goṇḍs fought with great determination and broke the centre of the Musalmāns, slaying Śujāt Khān, Rustam Khān, and Dilāvar Khān[5]. The right under the command of Ahmad Khān, and the left under the command of Mir Fazl-ullāh Añjū Śirājī still stood fast. Fazl-ullāh was told that Ahmad Khān had fallen, but wisely forbade his informant to circulate the rumour, which turned out

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[1]. Ferishta gives the date as May 21, 1378.

[2]. Most English writers, in deference to Ferishta who is obstinately mistaken as to this king's name, style him Mahmud, inspite of the evidence of coins, inscriptions, and other historians. Mahmud was his father's name—*Vide Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal*, Vol. LXXIII, Part I.

[3]. Briggs, II, p. 353.

[4]. Briggs, II, p. 375.

[5]. Briggs, II, pp. 376-77.

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to be false. He then caused it to be proclaimed that Firoz Śāh had come in person to the relief of his troops and caused the great drums to be beaten. The scattered forces of the Muslims rallied to the sound and Mir Fazl-ullāh and Ahmad Khān managed to join the forces and to attack the enemy. Gopāl Rāi, the son of Narsingh Dev, was taken prisoner, and the Gonḍs were pursued with great slaughter to the gates of Kherlā, whither Narsingh Dev arrived only just in time to save his life. Ahmad Khān and Fazl-ullāh then besieged the fortress and after a lapse of two months the Gonḍs offered to surrender on conditions. The Muhammadan generals replied that they had no power to offer terms, and that if Narsingh Dev desired to obtain them it was necessary that he and his chief nobles should make their submission to Firoz Śāh in Ellicpūr, to which place they were offered a safe conduct. This advice was followed, and the *rājā* swore at the foot-stool of Firoz in Ellicpūr that he and his successors would be faithful liegemen of the Bahamanīs as their predecessor had been in the days of Bahman Śāh. Narsingh Dev was dismissed with honour after paying tribute.

The names of the Muhammadan nobles killed at the battle of Kherlā are worthy of attention for, as we have seen, they probably provided the apocryphal Abdur Rahmān with a local habitation and a name. They were four in number and it appears probable that the requisite tale of five was completed by Salābat Khān, the governor of Berār, for no more is heard of this *tarafdār*, and Firoz Śāh, immediately before he left Ellicpūr for Gulburgā, appointed the gallant Mir Fazl-ullāh Añjū, governor of Berār.

Wars with Vijayanagar and Gonḍwana.

In 1406 Firoz Śāh was at war with Vijayanagar and the army of Berār under Fazl-ullāh was employed in the siege of Bankāpūr. The expedition was successful. Bankāpūr, with the country surrounding it, was annexed to the Bahamanī dominions[1], and Fazl-ullāh and his army returned to Berār. In 1412 Firoz Śāh indulged in an apparently purposeless campaign in Gonḍwana in which the army of Berār probably took a principal part[2].

In 1417 Firoz embarked on a disastrous war against Vira Vijaya of Vijayanagar, near Pangal. Mir Fazl-ullāh Añjū who, with the army of Berār, played a dominant role in the decisive battle of the campaign, in which the Muslims were defeated, was treacherously slain by a Kanarese attendant who had been bribed by his co-religionists. The affairs of the kingdom fell into great confusion and nobody was immediately appointed to succeed the gallant *tarafdār* of Berār, but the government of the province was probably carried on by the deputy whom Fazl-ullāh had left behind him when he set out on the fatal expediton.

The Khān-i-Jahān appointed Governor of Berār.

In 1422 Ahmad Khān deposed his brother Firoz Śāh and ascended the throne in Gulburgā as Ahmad Śāh I on September

[1]. Briggs, II, 384; Haig, p. 392.
[2]. Haig, p. 393.

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22, 1422. His first care was to bring the war with the Hindus to a successful conclusion, and in the attainment of this object he laid waste the territories of Vijayanagar. After one of his actions he was separated from his army while hunting and nearly fell into the hands of a band of resolute Hindu warriors, but was rescued by Abdul Kādir, a commander of 200 horse and captain of the guard, whose soldierly precautions averted the disaster which Ahmad's foolish behaviour courted. Abdul Kādir's reward was the vacant governorship of Berār with the title of Khān-i-Jahān[1] in addition to the *ex-officio* title of Majilis-i-Ali. Abdul Kādir, who held the governorship of Berār for nearly forty years, was the son of Muhammad Isā, the son of Mahmud, the son of a Turk named Malik Hindui who received the title of Imād-ul-Mulk from Bahman Śāh, and held under that king the appointment of inspector-general of the forces. The Khān-i-Jahān was thus a Deccani of Turki descent.

Ahmad Śāh made peace with Vira Vijaya and then set out to capture Warañgal, which fell into the hands of Abdul Latif Khān-i-Āzam, the governor of Bidar. The king then returned to his capital.

Ahmad Śāh visits Ellicpūr.

In the confusion which followed on the rout of the Muslims at Pangal affairs in the provinces of the kingdom had fallen into great disorder and the Hindus of the greater part of Berār seem to have risen in rebellion. In 1426 Ahmad Śāh was compelled to march northwards to restore order. After capturing Māhūr and Kalam, which had fallen into the hands of the Goṇds or Hindus, he marched to Ellicpūr, where he halted for a year. His object in making this long halt in the capital of his northern province is said to have been the preparation for the extension of his kingdom towards the north. His brother Firoz Śāh had sent a complimentary letter with expressions of submission by Mir Fazl-ullāh Añjū to Amir Timur when Amir Timur invaded India in 1398 and the conqueror acknowledged the letter by bestowing on Firoz the sovereignty of Gujarāt and Māḷvā in addition to that of the Deccan, and Feriśtā supposes that Ahmad now proposed, if possible, to turn this empty grant to some account[2]. The theory is a most improbable one. Ahmad Śāh, as we shall see, had conscientious scruples against attacking brother Muslims, and to the south of his kingdom lay an unconquered Hindu empire which was both lawful prey and a source of danger in case of difficulties in the north, and he had very little chance of success against the combined forces of Gujarāt and Māḷvā, which would certainly have been joined by Khāndeś. The more reasonable view is that Ahmad was merely strengthening his northern frontier in order to prevent inroads during his southern wars, and to this end he built the fort of Gāvil and repaired that of Narnāḷā. These expressions, which are Feriśtā's, seem to imply that Narnāḷā was an older fort than Gāvilgaḍ which was probably fortified long before the time of

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[1] Briggs, II, pp. 402-03; Haig, pp. 397-98.

[2]. Briggs, II, pp. 378-79.

The Bahamanīs.

Ahmad Śāh visits Ellicpūr.

Ahmad Śāh. Its name points to its having been at one time like Gaoligaḍ in Khāndeś and Asirgaḍ (Asa Ahir Gaḍ), the stronghold of a local *Gavaḷī* chieftain before the advent of the Musalmāns. Whatever Ahmad's object may have been Hośaṅg Śāh of Māḷvā disapproved of his preparations, and invited Narsingh Dev of Kherlā, who had been reduced to vassalage by Firoz, to transfer his allegiance to Māḷvā[1]. Narsingh Dev refused to listen to Hośaṅg who, after consulting Nasir Khān of Khāndeś, without whose acquiescence he could not afford to act, twice attacked Kherlā and was twice defeated. Ahmad Śāh rendered no material assistance to his vassal and Hośaṅg's third attempt on Kherlā was more successful. His officers wrested some districts from the Goṇḍs and Hośaṅg prepared to follow up this advantage by marching on Kherlā in person. Narsingh Dev considered that it was high time to appeal to his suzerain and in 1428 sent messengers to Ahmad Śāh, who had returned to his capital, to ask for help. Ahmad Śāh ordered the Khān-i-Jahān to march to the assistance of Narsingh Dev with the army of Berār and himself marched northwards in a leisurely fashion, as though bent only on sport, until he reached Ellicpūr. Meanwhile Hośaṅg, attributing Ahmad's comparative inaction to fear, advanced on Kherlā and after ravaging the country, laid siege to the fortress, boasting that Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī was afraid to meet him in the field. Ahmad Śāh was much incensed when he heard of Hośaṅg's boast, and at once set forth from Ellicpūr to encounter him. While he was yet forty miles distant from Hośaṅg's army the doctors of religion in his camp approached him, reminded him that no Bahamanī had ever yet declared war on a Muhammadan king and advised him that it ill became him to attack Hośaṅg in support of an infidel. Following their advice Ahmad Śāh sent an envoy to Hośaṅg apprising him that Narsingh Dev was a vassal of Gulburgā and requesting him not to molest him. After the despatch of the envoy Ahmad Śāh began to retire and this retrograde movement combined with his spiritless policy confirmed Hośaṅg in the belief that Ahmad feared him, and emboldened him to pursue the Deccanis so closely that he halted each evening on the ground which they had occupied in the morning. This insolence transgressed the bounds of even the pious Ahmad's forbearance, and when Hośaṅg crossed the frontier the doctors of religion were sent away from Ahmad's camp and the Deccanis instead of pursuing their way halted to receive the invader who advanced without any apprehension of resistance. Ahmad Śah drew up his forces on the bank of a river[2], unfortunately not named. The governor of Berār commanded the right wing, Abdullāh Khān, a grandson of Ismail Fateh, the left, and Alā-ud-din Ahmad, the king's eldest son, the centre. Ahmad Śāh himself, with 2,000 picked cavalry and twelve elephants, lay in ambush far to the left. Hośaṅg with no more than 17,000 cavalry, suddenly came upon the

[1]. Haig, p. 399.

[2]. Ferishta mentions that no historian has named the river but Haig mentions the river Tapi in this connection.

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Deccanis in a carefully chosen position. He had no choice but to attack them and did so, and while action was at its height Ahmad Śāh suddenly fell upon Hośaṅg's rear. The army of Māḷvā was routed and Hośaṅg Śāh fled so precipitately that he left the ladies of his harem in Ahmad's hands. Meanwhile Narsingh Dev had heard of his enemy's disaster and, emerging from Kherlā, fell upon the beaten army and completed the heavy tale of slaughter, while Hośaṅg and the remnant of his force made the best of their way to Maṇḍu. The loss suffered by Musalmāns at the hands of an unbeliever again aroused Ahmad Śāh's scruples and to console his adversary he returned his ladies to him under a trusty guard, accompanied by a present of many eunuchs. Ahmad then returned to Gulburgā. A less probable account of this campaign represents Ahmad Śāh as the aggressor. According to this account he was preparing to attack Narsingh Dev when Hośaṅg Śāh marched to the latter's aid. Whichever version be accepted Ahmad Śāh was victorious. He left Berār in 1429 and in the same year transferred his capital from Gulburgā to Bidar[1].

War with Gujarāt and Māḷvā.

In 1430, the daughter of Nasir Khān, the ruler of Khāndeś, was married to Alā-ud-din Ahmad, the eldest son of Ahmad Śāh. The marriage is of local interest for it afterwards led to a war between Alā-ud-din Ahmad and his father-in-law. In the same year Khalaf Hasan Basri, entitled Malik-ut-Tujjār, who had been one of Ahmad Śāh's earliest partisans, was made governor of Daulatābād. Here his zeal in his master's service[2] brought on a war between Ahmad Śāh of the Deccan and Ahmad Śāh of Gujarāt which lasted for a year and exhausted both sides. In 1433 Hośaṅg Śāh of Māḷvā, taking advantage of the enfeebled condition of the Deccan, attacked and annexed Kherlā, slaying Narsingh Dev. Ahmad Śāh marched into Berār and was on the points of attacking Hośaṅg when Nasir Khān of Khāndeś[3] intervened and proposed terms of peace which were accepted by both sides. These terms were that Hośaṅg Śāh should return to Kherlā and that Berār should remain a part of Ahmad Śāh's dominions. The acceptance of these terms by Ahmad Śāh indicates the extent to which he had been weakened by the war with Gujarāt, for it would have been unnecessary to introduce into the treaty the article relating to Berār unless Hośaṅg Śāh had been prepared, with some hope of success, to attempt its annexation, and Ahmad Śāh actually gave up all that he was prepared to fight for.

Ahmad Śāh I died on 19th February 1435 and was succeeded by his eldest son, Alā-ud-din Ahmad Śāh II, who had married the daughter of Nasir Khān. This lady, in a fit of jealousy, complained to her father that her husband was neglecting her for a Hindu mistress[4], and Nasir Khān prepared to invade his son-in-law's dominions. Having obtained the assent of Ahmad Śāh of

[1]. The account of the confrontation between the Bahamanis and the Kingdom of Malwa given by Sayyad Ali is more or less the same.

[2]. He occupied the island of Mahim (Bombay).

[3]. Briggs, II, pp. 415-16.

[4]. Briggs, II, p. 424.

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Gujarāt to his enterprise he began to prepare his way by detaching the nobles of Berār from their allegiance to the Bahamanī king. Nasir Khān claimed descent from the second *Khalifā*, Umar-ul-Faruk, and succeeded in persuading many of the officers in Berār that the one who fell fighting in the cause of the descendants of the greatest of the prophet's successors would receive the reward promised to martyrs for the faith. It is not easy to understand how the officers of Berār were deceived; for Nasir Khān allied himself with Goṇḍs and probably with the Korkus of the Melghāṭ also, but many fell into the trap and formed a strong party in Berār against the Bahamanī king. Nasir Khān accordingly entered into Berār with all the troops of Khāndeś, a considerable force having been also sent to his aid by the *Rājā* of Goṇḍwana. The treacherous officers attempted to seize the governor, Khān Jahān, who was too firmly attached to the house of Bahamanīs to join the invaders; and he, obtaining information of their designs, fled to the fortress of Narnāḷā, where he shut himself up, and wrote accounts of the state of affairs to his court. The traitors, meanwhile, joined Nasir Khān, and not only read the *Khutbā* in his name as king of Berār, but marched with him to besiege Narnāḷā.

Alā-ud-din Śāh, on receiving this intelligence called a council of his ministers and military chiefs, to concert measures for acting at such a critical moment. It was recommended that the king should proceed in person against the enemy, it being probable that both the kings of Gujarāt and Māḷvā, as also the *rāis* of Goṇḍwana, were prepared to aid in assisting Nasir Khān. The king, however, suspecting the fidelity of his chiefs, appointed Malik-ut-Tujjār, then governor of Daulatābād and leader of the foreigners, to conduct the campaign. He requested the king to give him the command of the household troops, and all the foreigners, without any Deccanis or Abyssinians, to bring the royal affairs in Berār to a prosperous issue[1]. 'Alā-ud-din Śāh consenting, directed three thousand Moghal bowmen from the body-guards[2] to attend him, as also many Moghal officers, who had been brought up in the service of Firoz Śāh and Ahmad Śāh. Malik-ut-Tujjār left Daulatābād with 7,000 foreign horse, despatching an army on observation to the frontiers of Gujarāt and Māḷvā and entered into Berār. Khān Jahan, also, having found an opportunity of quitting Narnāḷā, joined the king's army at Mehkar. Malik-ut-Tujjār now detached Khān Jahān with his troops to Ellicpūr and Bāḷāpūr, in order to prevent the *Rāis* of Goṇḍawana from entering Berār by that route, while himself moved with the main body towards the Rohankheḍ Ghāṭ, where the enemy was encamped. The campaign did not take place in the Amarāvatī district but in Bulḍhānā and Khāndeś, whither Nasir Khān was driven, and ended in the complete discomfiture of the invaders,[3] but before engaging Nasir Khān, Khalaf Hasan

[1]. Khalaf Hasan Basri, (Malik-ut-Tujjar) was a foreign merchant. The hostility of the Deccanis and Abyssinians to the Persians and Turks seems to have prevailed throughout the long period of the reign of the Deccan kings.

[2]. Among these body-guards were two princes, Majnun Sultan and Shah Kully Sultan, both lineal descendants from the great conqueror Chungiz Khan.

[3]. *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, pp. 95-96.

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Basrī found it necessary to strengthen the garrison of Ellicpūr, in order to prevent the Korkus from descending on the plains.

In 1443 the army of Berār was employed, with the armies of the other provinces of the kingdom[1], in driving Devarāya II of Vijayanagar out of the Rāicūr *Doāb,* which he had occupied, but Berār does not seem to have been settled enough to spare its governor for this expedition; for the Khān-i-Jahān did not accompany the army. In 1453, a dangerous eruption breaking out in the king's foot which baffled the art of the surgeons, he was necessarily confined to his private apartments, and reports, were often spread through the provinces of his death. Among other persons, one Jalāl Khān, a Sayyad, who had married a daughter of Ahmad Śah, being assured of his decease, seized on many districts around his government of Nowalguṇḍ, which he gave in charge to his son Sikandar Khān, grandson of the late Ahmad Śāh[2]. Alā-ud-din Śāh, in spite of his indisposition, prepared to march in order to reduce the rebels, on which Jalāl Khān and Sikandar Khān agreed that, the former should remain in Telaṅgaṇa and the latter proceed to Māhūr, with a view to distract the motions of the royal army. The king sent offers of pardon[3] but Sikandar Khān refused to rely on the king's promises. Sikandar Khān represented to the king of Māḷvā, Sultān Mahmud I, that Alā-ud-din Śāh had been long dead, but that the ministers, pretending he was still alive, had resolved to destroy the principal nobles, and to divide the kingdom among themselves; that, under these circumstances, if the king of Māḷvā chose to undertake the project, the provinces of Berār and Telaṅgaṇa would fall without a blow into his hands. Sultān Mahmud I, crediting these assurances, so flattering to his ambition, marched in conjunction with the ruler of Khāndeś, in the year 1456, to invade Berār. They were joined by Sikandar Khān, who advanced with a body of one thousand horse to meet them.

'Alā-ud-din Śāh, on receiving the intelligence, changed his design of going in person to Telaṅgaṇa, whither he deputed Khvājā Mahmud Gilānī (commonly called Gāvān), with a considerable army, to attack Jalāl Khān. At the same time, Khān Jahān, governor of Berār, was directed to watch the motions of the ruler of Khāndeś, while Kāsim Beg, governor of Daulatābād, advanced with a corps of observation towards the division led by the king of Māḷvā, the king of the Deccan being with the main army, consisting chiefly of the Bijāpūr division, following at a distance of ten miles[4].

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1. Briggs, II, p. 432.

2. Khan Azim, governor of Telangana, also dying at this time, and no officer of sufficient influence being on the spot to assume the charge, the officers of the province submitted to the authority of Sikandar Khan.

3. If the rebels would lay down their arms; but Sikandar Khan, having on a former occasion joined the prince Muhammad Khan in his insurrection and having been guilty of many other offences, refused to rely on the king's promises.

4. Briggs, *op. cit*, II pp. 448-49.

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Sultān Mahmud I of Māḷvā, now satisfied that the Deccan king was still living, and actually marching against him, retreated with the greater part of his army, leaving an officer, under pretence of assisting Sikandar Khān, but with secret instructions, in case of his attempting to join the Deccanis, to seize his person, and bring him prisoner to Maṇḍu with all his treasure. Sikandar Khān gaining timely information of this design, escaped from the Māḷvā army with two thousand Afghāns and Rajputs to Balkoṇḍā, to which place Khvājā Mahmud Gāvān was then about to lay seige. Shortly after this, Sikandar Khān delivered up the fortress, on condition of a free pardon. On going to court with Khvājā Mahmud Gāvān, he was again received into favour, and Balkoṇḍā was restored to him[1]. The king having left Fakhr-ul-Mulk Turk in the government of the Māhūr district and Furhut-ul-Mulk in command of the garrison of Māhūr, returned to his capital.

Invasion of the Deccan by Mahmud of Māḷvā.

Alā-ud-din Ahmad II, died in 1458 and was succeeded by his son Humāyun "the Tyrant" who had hardly ascended the throne when Jalāl Khān and Sikandar Khān, the two nobles who had rebelled in the previous reign, again rose in rebellion. The governor of Berār who had visited the capital for the purpose of offering his congratulations to the new king was employed against the rebels, but was defeated, and the rising was ultimately suppressed by Humāyun[2]. We hear no more of Berār during this brief and troubled reign. When Humāyun Śāh was taken ill and thought that he would die, he appointed his eldest son, Nizām Śāh, then only eight years of age, his successor. Having summoned Khvajā Jahān Turk from Berār, and Khvājā Mahmud Gāvān from Telaṅgaṇa[3] he made his will, constituting them regent, and guardians of his son during his minority and commanding them strictly, at the same time, to transact no business without the cognisance of the Queen-mother[4] Humāyun Śāh died on September 4, 1461 and was succeeded by his son Nizām Śāh, aged eight. In 1462 Mahmud Śāh of Māḷvā, taking advantage of the new king's young age, invaded the Deccan by way of western Berār. The army of Bidar was employed in keeping off the *rājās* of Telaṅgaṇa and Orissā, who had invaded the Bahamanī dominions of the east, and the armies of Berār, Daulatābād and Gulburgā marched to meet Mahmud Śāh. A battle was fought at Kandhār about seventy miles north of Bidar, and the Bahamanī forces were defeated. Nizām Śāh was carried off by his mother to Firozābād near Gulburga while Mahmud Śah of Mālvā sacked Bidar. He had begun to lay siege to the citadel when he heard that Mahmud Śāh of Gujarāt, to whom Nizām Śāh's mother had appealed for help, had reached the north-western frontier of the Bahamanī kingdom with 80,000 horse. Mahmud Gāvān, one of the chief nobles of Bahamanī

[1]. *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, p. 107. [2]. *Ibid* p. 114.

[3]. Haig mentions that Khvaja Jahan, the Turk, and Nizam-ul-Mulk were sent to Warangal to fight the Hindus of Telangana and especially those of the district of Devarkonda, who had supported Sikandar Khan. One of the Rajas of Orissa helping the Hindus, Khvaja Jahan and Nizam-ul-Mulk were defeated. Khvaja Jahan basely attributed the disaster to his colleague, and Nizam-ul-Mulk was put to death by Humayun Shah. Khvaja Jahan was imprisoned. Haig, *op. cit*; pp. 410-11.

[4]. Makhaduma Jahan Nargis Begam.

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kingdom, joined the Gujarātis with five or six thousand cavalry, and continued to raise and borrow troops until he was able to take the field with an army of 40,000 Deccani and Gujarāti horse. He sent 10,000 Deccani horse into Berār to cut off the invader's retreat and marched towards Bidar with the remainder of his force. Encamping between Bid and Kandhār he cut off the besiegers' supplies but would not risk a battle, though Mahmud Śāh of Māḷvā could not put more than 30,000 horse into the field. At length the army of Māḷvā was starved out and Mahmud Śāh of Māḷvā, after blinding his elephants and burning his heavy baggage, retreated northwards through eastern Berār. He was pursued and harassed throughout his retreat by Mahmud Gāvān and the ten thousand horse which had been awaiting him in Berār. In order to avoid Mahmud Gāvān on the one hand and escape Mahmud Śāh of Gujarāt on the other, he resolved to retreat through the hills of the Melghāṭ and engaged one of the Korku *rājās* of that tract as a guide. After leading him by Ellicpūr and Akoṭ the *rājā* took him into the hills and there intentionally led him astray. In the Melghāṭ the army of Māḷvā perished by the thousands from heat and thirst and by the attacks of the Korkus, who were instigated by their *rājā*. When the remnant of the army at length emerged from the wild hilly country, Mahmud Śāh of Maḷvā had the Korku *rājā* put to death[1].

In the following year Mahmud of Māḷvā again invaded the Bahamanī dominions and advanced as far as Daulatābād, but retreated on hearing that Mahmud of Gujarāt was again marching to the support of the Deccanis.

Nizām Śāh died on July 30, 1463 and was succeeded by his brother Muhammad III, surnamed *Laskarī* or "the soldier".

War with Kherlā.

In 1467 Nizām-ul-Mulk, the Turk, who had commanded the left wing in the battle of Kandhār against Mahmud Śāh of Māḷvā, was appointed governor of Berār and was ordered to capture Kherlā, where a Gond prince still owed allegiance to Māḷvā. The army of Berār marched against Kherlā and besieged it and the army of Māḷvā, in an attempt to raise the siege, was signally defeated. Kherlā fell, but two Rajputs[2] of the place approached Nizām-ul-Mulk under the pretence of making their submission to him and assassinated him. They then attacked his attendants and were put to death. The two officers next in authority to Nizām-ul-Mulk were Yusuf Ādil Khān[3], afterwards the founder of the Ādil Śāhi dynasty of Bijāpūr, and Daryā Khān, the Turk. These nobles argued that the desperate enterprise of the two Rajputs could not have been undertaken otherwise than at the instigation of some of the inhabitants of Kherlā and a massacre of these unfortunates, with

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[1]. *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, p. 134.

[2]. Haig, p. 480. Sayyad Ali says that he was killed by the commadant of the fort.

[3]. There is some conflict of authorities here. Some historians give the name of Yusuf Adil Khan, the Deccani, a much less distinguished person, but a bitter enemy of Yusuf Adil Khan Savai, as he was called. On the whole the account given in the text is the more probable.

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their wives and children, followed. Yusuf and Daryā left a force to hold Kherlā and returned to Bidar with the body of their late leader. Muhammad Śāh approved of their action and bestowed Kherlā upon them in *jahāgir*. Mahmud Śah of Māḷvā now sent an embassy to Muhammad Śāh and reminded him of the treaty between Ahmad Śāh Bahamanī and Hośang Śāh of Māḷvā, in which it was stipulated that Kherlā should belong to Māḷvā and Berār to the Bahamanīs. He besought Muhammad Śāh not to be a breaker of treaties, or the means of stirring up strife between Musalmāns. Muhammad Śāh returned to him a dignified reply by Śaikh Ahmad, the *Sadr,* and Śarif-ul-mulk. He thanked God that no one of the race of Bahaman had ever been known to break a treaty and reminded Muhammad Śāh that when the affairs of the Bahamanī kingdom were in confusion after the accession of the boy-king Nizām Śāh it was Mahmud himself who had broken faith by invading the Bahamanī dominions. In every corner of the empire of Karnata, which was still in the hands of the infidels, there were many fortresses like Kherlā and since these were ready to his hand he had no wish to deprive a brother Musalmān of his fortresses. A new treaty was concluded whereby either sovereign bound himself by the most solemn oaths not to molest or invade the dominions of the other, and Kherlā, which had been annexed to Berār, was handed back by Muhammad Śāh to the king of Māḷvā.[1]

Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk.

The governorship of Berār seems to have remained vacant for a few years after the death of Nizām-ul-Mulk, the Turk until in 1471 Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk was made governor. This *amir* is worthy of special notice for he founded the Imād Śāhī dynasty, which reigned in Berār for a period of eighty years. He was a Brāhmaṇ of Vijayanagar who was captured by the Musalmāns in 1422 early in the reign of Ahmad Śāh and was bestowed on the Khān-i-Jahān, who was appointed governor of Berar immediately after the conclusion of the campaign, and was brought up as a Musalmān, but never forgot his Brāhmaṇ descent or his native land. More than sixty years after his capture when, as governor of Berār, he strengthened the fortifications of Gāvilgaḍ, he adorned the northern gate, afterwards known as the Delhi gate, with representations of the emblem of Vijayanagar, the *gaṇḍa bheruṇḍa*, a fabulous two-headed bird which was said to prey upon elephants, and these representations still remain, almost as clearly cut as when Fateh-ullāh set them up as his boast that though a Musalmān and the faithful servant of a Musalmān he was by blood a twice-born Brāhmaṇ and a native of the great Hindu empire of Vijayanagar. Fateh-ullāh had spent all his service, if we except temporary periods of absence in the field, in Berār and was a very fair instance of the strength and the weakness of the provincial system of the Bahamanī kingdom. He seems to have been sincerely attached to the province, despite his pride of race and descent, and to have been at the same time a faithful servant of the Bahamanīs. In his later years, when troubles gathered thick and fast around the head of the descendant of Bahman Śāh and when the provincial governors were

[1]. *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, p. 140.

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driven rather than tempted to rebellion, he was regarded as the Nestor of the Deccan, and his entire freedom from party prejudice was displayed in his grief and anger at the unjust execution of Mahmud Gāvān, a foreigner, and in his unwavering friendship for Yusuf Ādil Khān Savāi another foreigner, who differed from him in religion, being a staunch *Śiāh* while Fateh-ullāh was an equally staunch *Sunni*.

Berār suffered, with the rest of the Deccan, from the terrible two years of famine in 1473, and 1474, and most of those who escaped death from starvation fled to Māḷvā and Gujarāt. In the third year rain fell, but prosperity was slow to return, for there were few left to till the soil and the wanderers returned by slow degrees[1].

Redistribution of provinces.

In the campaigns of Muhammad III in Orissā, Telaṅgaṇa, and the Peninsula, Fateh-ullāh, with the army of Berār, bore a share. In 1480, before these campaigns had been brought to a close, the four provinces into which the Deccan had been divided by Bahman Śāh were sub-divided into eight. Berār was divided into the two new provinces of northern Berār, named Gāvil, and southern Berār, named Māhūr, the whole of the Amarāvatī district being included in the former, which remained under the governorship of Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk, while Khudāvand Khān, the African, was made governor of Māhūr. At the same time the powers of the provincial governors were much curtailed. Many *paragaṇās* of the provinces were made *khās* and were administered by officers appointed direct by the crown, while the governors were allowed to appoint a commandant only to the chief fort in each province, all other commandants of forts being appointed direct by the king. These belated reforms caused much dissatisfaction among some of the *tarafdārs*, but the faithful Fateh-ullāh though stripped of half his province, seems to have taken no exception to them. The malcontents, however, entered into a conspiracy against Mahmud Gāvān, the author of the reforms, and compassed his death on April 5, 1481[2]. Muhammad III who was their dupe discovered his minister's innocence when it was too late and bitterly repented his action. Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk and Khudāvand Khān, with the troops of Berār, left the royal camp and encamped at a distance of two leagues from it. When asked the reason of this move Fateh ullāh boldly replied that when so old and faithful a servant as Mahmud Gāvān could be murdered on the lying reports of false witnesses nobody within the king's reach was safe. The wretched king, now smitten with remorse, sent a secret message imploring them to return that he might take counsel with them regarding the punishment of those who had brought Khvāja Mahmud to his death, but Fateh-ullāh and Khudāvand Khān replied that they would shape their conduct on that of Yusuf Ādil Khān, who was then absent on a distant expedition. Yusuf was at once recalled and joined Fateh-ullāh and Khudāvand Khān. The three *tarafdārs* then entered the royal camp and made their demands. They did not succeed in bringing the ringleaders of

[1]. Haig, 417. [2]. *Bahamani Rajyacha Itihas*, p. 160.

the conspiracy to punishment, but Yusuf obtained the province of Bijāpūr, which enabled him to make provision for the followers of the deceased minister. Shortly after this the *tarafdārs* were dismissed to their provinces.

Redistribution of Provinces.

Fateh-ullāh and Khudāvand Khān were recalled from Berār shortly afterwards in order that they might attend Muhammad III on a progress through the province of Bijāpūr. They obeyed the summons, but both on the march and in camp placed a distance between themselves and the royal camp, and saluted the king from afar when he marched. In this manner the armies reached Belgāṅv, whence the *tarafdārs* were ordered to accompany the king to Goā and the Koṅkan, which they refused to do. Yusuf Ādil Khān, however, marched to the aid of Goā, then besieged by Rājaśekhara of Vijayanagar, while Muhammad III marched to Firozābād. Fateh-ullāh and Khudāvand Khān refused to accompany him any further, and returned to Berār without leave. Muhammad felt their defection deeply, but dared not resent it, for he knew that their mistrust of him was justified, and that civil war would but hasten the disruption of his kingdom.

Disaffection of the tarafdārs of Berār.

Accession of Mahmud Śāh.

Muhammad Śāh died of drink on 22nd March 1482, and was succeeded by his son Mahmud Śah, a boy of twelve; all power in the capital was held by Malik Hasan Nizām-ul-Mulk[1], the principal enemy of the late Mahmud Gāvān who was now minister of the kingdom. Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk, on visiting the capital to congratulate the young king on his accession, was made titular minister of the kingdom, his son Śaikh Alā-ud-din being appointed his deputy in northern Berār, but the intrigues and massacres of the capital were not to the veteran's taste[2], and he returned to Ellicpūr without having exercised the duties of his post at the capital[3].

Imād Śāhī of Berār.

Malik Hasan Nizām-ul-Mulk was assassinated before 1485 and affairs in Bidar went from bad to worse. The young king showed a precocious bent towards debauchery and the administration passed into the hands of Kāsim Barīd, a Turk. The *tarafdārs*, well aware that all orders issued were the orders of Kāsim Barīd, ignored messages from the capital, and were practically independent, attending only occasionally with their armies when summoned to do so. This attendance only accentuated the humiliation of the nominal ruler, whose splendour was utterly eclipsed by that of the armaments which the *tarafdārs* brought into the field.

Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk Independent.

In 1490 Malik Ahmad, the son of Malik Hasan Nizām-ul-Mulk, having founded Ahmadnagar and made preparations for securing his independence, invited Yusuf Ādil Khān of Bijāpūr and Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk of Gāvil to join him in assuming the style and insignia of royalty[4]. The compact was sealed by the

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1. Dr. B. G. Kunte : *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 2. 3. Briggs, II, p. 528.
2. Haig, p. 423. 4. Haig, pp. 425-26, foot note.

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consent of each of these three provincial governors, and each had the *khutbā* read in the mosques of his kingdom in his own name, omitting that of Mahmud Śāh Bahamanī. Henceforth these rulers will be known by the titles Yusuf Ādil Śāh, Ahmad Nizām Śāh, and Fateh-ullāh Imād Śāh, though Yusuf and Fateh-ullāh appear to have been very chary of using the royal title.

The supremacy of Kāsim Barīd in the capital had, however, convinced Fateh-ullāh of the necessity for some decisive step, and the veteran statesman had already prepared himself for possible opposition by improving the defences of Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā.

Although Fateh-ullāh had declared himself independent he still regarded himself, to some extent, as a vassal of the Bahamanī king. Thus in 1494, when a rebel named Bahādur Gilānī, who had established himself on the western coast of the Deccan, committed in Gujarāt, excesses which caused Mahmud Śāh of that country to demand his punishment at the hands of Mahmud Śāh Bahamanī, Fateh-ullāh Imād Śāh, together with Yusuf Ādil Śāh and Ahmad Nizām Śāh, responded to his old master's appeal and aided him against the rebel, who was defeated and slain after a long and arduous campaign. But the aid thus rendered differed from the submissive attendance of the *tarafdārs* for the Sultāns did not attend in person but sent contingents.

Combination against Bijāpūr.

In 1504 Yusuf Ādil Śāh, who was a *Śiāh*, had the *khutbā* read in the mosques of the Bijāpūr kingdom after the *Śiāh* fashion, he being the first Muhammadan ruler in India to make this public profession of the *Śiāh* faith. Amīr Barīd who had succeeded his father, Kāsim Barīd, in that same year sent notices in Mahmud Śāh's name to Fateh-ullāh Imad Śāh, Khudāvand Khān of Māhūr, and Sultān Kulī Kutub-ul-Mulk, who had been appointed governor of Telaṅgaṇa and had established himself at Golcoṇḍā, asking them to combine to stamp out the heresy. The result of the appeal was curious. Sultan Kulī Kutub-ul-Mulk who was himself a devoted *Śiāh*, responded to it at once, apparently on the ground that Yusuf Ādil Śāh's act was a more pronounced declaration of opposition to Bahamanī traditions than his mere assumption of independence, and possibly from the motive which led Innocent XI to advise James II to moderate his zeal for the propagation of Roman doctrine and practice in England. Fateh-ullāh Imād Śāh, and Khudāvand Khān on the other hand, though both were professed *Sunnis*, showed very clearly their disinclination to act against their old ally, and excused themselves. As to what followed, there is a conflict of authority. Feriśtā says that Amīr Barīd was much perplexed by the contumacy of the two chiefs of Berār and applied to Ahmad Nizām Śāh for aid which was promptly rendered. Ali-bin Aziz-ullāh Tabātabāi, whose dates do not agree with those of Feriśtā, though he is clearly referring to the same incident, writes that Mahmud Śāh, on becoming aware of Fateh-ullāh Imād Śāh's refusal to take the

field against Yusuf Ādil Śāh, marched into Berār, whereupon Fateh-ullāh, who was no more willing to take up arms against the Bahamanī than against Yusuf, made his submission to him. Feriśtā's account is to be preferred, for he was, though sometimes misinformed, always impartial, whereas the author of the *Burhān-i-Māāsīr* was an uncompromising partisan of the Nizām Śāhi kings and also strangely enough, a strenuous supporter of the fiction that Mahmud Śāh was as independent a king as any of his forefathers. Moreover, immediately after its account of these events, the *Burhān-i-Māāsīr* goes wildly astray in its references to Fateh-ullāh Imād Śāh and Yusuf Ādil Śāh. The following is the true account of what happened. Amīr Barīd with Mahmud Śāh, Sultān Kulī Kutub-ul-Mulk, Ahmad Nizām Śāh, and Fakhr-ul-Mulk, the Deccani, marched against Yusuf Ādil Śāh, who, finding that his external foes and the *Sunnis* in his own kingdom were too strong for him, left Fakhr-ul-Mulk the Turk, to hold Gulburgā and the surrounding country, sent his infant son Ismāil with Kamāl Khān, the Deccani, to Bijāpūr, and made the best of his way, with 5,000 horse, to the territories of his old friend Fateh-ullāh Imād Śāh, closely pursued by the allies who followed him almost to the gates of Gāvilgaḍ. Fateh-ullāh was again greatly perplexed[1]. He would not give up the refugee, he would not fight for the *Śiāh* religion, and in no circumstances would he draw the sword against the Bahamani king. He, therefore, despatched Yusuf Ādil Śāh, to Dāud Khān of Khāndeś, while he proceeded to make terms with the invaders of Berār. His methods are a fair example of the astuteness which he seems always to have brought into play in the interests of justice and toleration. He sent envoys to Ahmad Nizām Śāh and Sultān Kulī Kutub-ul-Mulk to apprise them of his view of the quarrel which was that Amīr Barīd, well-known, he said, as 'the fox of the Deccan', was not actuated in his persecution of Yusuf Ādil Śāh by religious scruples, but merely desired to gain possession of Bijāpūr. Should he attain his object, the old diplomatist added, the position of those who held the other provinces of the kingdom would not be enviable, for Amīr Barīd already filled the Bahamani king in the hollow of his hand and wanted but an addition to his territorial possessions to make him supreme in the Deccan This entirely correct view of the situation impressed itself on Ahmad Nizām Śāh and Kutub-ul-Mulk, who at once returned to their provinces without even going through the form of bidding Mahmud Śāh farewell. The Sultān of Berār was now free to deal with the Sultān of Bidar. He represented to Mahmud that there was nothing to be gained by prosecuting the war and that the wisest course was to proclaim that Yusuf was pardoned and to return to Bidar. Mahmud Śāh was inclined to accept this counsel, but Amīr Barīd did not intend to let Bijāpūr slip through his fingers so easily and was about to carry Mahmud off to besiege Bidar, but meanwhile Yusuf Ādil Śāh had heard of the retreat of Ahmad Nizām Śāh

1. Briggs, II, p. 548.

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Combination against Bijapur.

and Kutub-ul-Mulk and returned with all haste from Burhāṇpūr to Gāvilgaḍ. He now took the field against Mahmud Śāh, or rather against Amīr Barīd, who perceiving that he was no match for Yusuf and Fateh-ullāh in combination, hurriedly retreated to Bidar, leaving Berār in peace. The minister Amīr Barīd put the king under great restraint than before. Weary of the situation Mahmud Śāh found the means to effect his escape to Gāvil in Berār where he procured assistance from Imād-ul-Mulk who marched with him towards the capital. Amīr Barīd shutting himself up in the citadel, applied for relief to Burhān Nizām-ul-Mulk, the son of the late Ahmad Nizām Śāh[1], who despatched Khvājā Jahān to join him with considerable force. Amīr Barīd and his ally now rallied forth against the troops of Imād-ul-Mulk, who prepared to receive them, and drew up his army for action[2]. The king joined the line as soon as possible, but suddenly spurring his horse, galloped over to Amīr Barīd's army. Imad-ul-Mulk immediately retreated with precipitation towards his own country and the minister returned triumphantly into the city with the king. Amīr Barīd, in 1517, found it necessary to march with the king to Māhūr against Baśir Khān[3], who with his son, was slain in the battle and Māhūr was conferred on Ghālib Khān, another son of Khudavand Khān.

Death of Fateh-ullāh Śāh.

The date of the death of Fateh-ullāh Imād Śāh is variously given as 1504 and 1510. The latter seems to be a mistake. His age when he was taken from Vijayanagar in 1422 is not given, and we are merely told that he was then a boy[4]. Assuming his age to have been ten years at that time he must have been 82 years of age at the time of his death. Fateh-ullāh was succeeded by his son Alā-ud-din Imād Śāh, of whom Feriśtā contradictorily says that he was the first of the dynasty to use the royal title. There can be little doubt that his father used it occasionally, certainly in his correspondence with Yusuf Ādil Śāh and Ahmad Nizam Śāh. to whom he would not have admitted himself to be inferior, but it is likely that he refrained from using it in correspondence with the Bahamanī king.

Alā-ud-din Imād Śah.

The early part of Alā-ud-din's reign is obscure. According to one authority he quietly succeeded his father, but according to another he was a prisoner in the fort of Rāmgirī, in Telaṅgaṇa, at the time of his father's death, in the power of Amīr Barīd and remained in captivity until he was rescued by one of the sons of Khudāvand Khān of Māhūr. On his release Alā-ud-din

[1] In 1509 Ahmad Nizam Shah died and was succeeded by his son, Burhan I.

[2]. It happened that the king was bathing at the time ; and the messenger sent by Imad-ul-Mulk to inform him of the enemy's approach insolently remarked, within his hearing, that it was no wonder a prince who could be so employed at such a critical moment should be the derision of his nobles. The king, stung with the reproof and enraged at what he thought proceeded from the insolence of Imad-ul-Mulk, joined Amir Barid's army—Briggs, *op. cit.*; II, p. 551.

[3]. Sharza Khan, the son and successor of Khudavand Khan of Mahur. Sharza Khan and one of his brothers were slain. Ala-ud-din Imad Shah marched to the relief of Mahur and compelled Amir Barid to retire.

[4]. Briggs, III, pp. 485-86.

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is said to have proceeded at once to Gāvilgaḍ and to have assumed the government of his father's kingdom, while Mahmud Śāh Bahamanī, at the request of Yusuf Ādil Śāh, conferred upon him his father's title of Imād-ul-Mulk. This story is improbable. In the first place the dates are all wrong, for Fateh-ullāh is represented as having died before 1500, whereas he was certainly alive in 1504, and in the second place it is highly improbable that Fateh-ullāh, who had, as we have seen, great power and influence in the Deccan would have left his son—his only son so far as we know—in the hands of his grestest enemy, 'the fox of the Deccan'. The more probable story is that which represents Alā-ud-din Imād Śah as quietly succeeding his father in Ellicpūr.

War with Ahmadnagar.

In 1509 Burhān Nizām Śāh succeeded his father Ahmad in Ahmadnagar at the age of seven[1]. The administration of that kingdom was in the hands of Mukammal Khān[2], who had been Ahmad's minister, and the Deccani nobles of the State, whose predominance was distasteful to the 'foreigners', i.e., the Persian and Turki soldiers of fortune who always formed a political party of their own in the Deccan. The foreigners conspired to overthrow the Deccanis, and on the failure of their plot[3] fled from Ahmadnagar with 8,000 horse and took refuge with Alā-ud-din Imād Śāh in Ellicpūr. They found no difficulty in persuading him that the affairs of Ahmadnagar were in hopeless confusion and that the conquest of that kingdom would be an easy task.

Alā-ud-din, without waiting to consider how far the interests of the fugitives had coloured their story, collected his troops from Gāvilgaḍ and Ellicpūr and marched for the frontier. Mukammal Khān was prepared and met him. After a severely contested battle victory declared itself for Ahmadnagar[4], and Alā-ud-din with the army of Berār fled to Ellicpūr. The army of Ahmadnagar followed up its victory and laid waste the greater part of south-western Berār, pressing Alā-ud din so hard that he deserted his country and fled to Burhānpūr, where he besought Ādil Khān III, the ruler of Khāndeś, to use his good offices in the cause of peace[5]. Ādil Khān of Khāndeś and his doctors of religion brought about a peace, but quarrels soon broke out afresh.

The affair of Pāthrī.

Burhān Nizām Śāh's grandfather, Malik Hasan Nizām-ul-Mulk, was descended of a Brāhmaṇ family which had held the hereditary office of *kulkarṇī* or *paṭvarī* in Pāthrī, near the Godāvarī river. For some reason or another, probably the proselytizing zeal of one of the Bahamanī kings, the ancestor of

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1. Briggs, III, p. 211.
2. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 41.
3. *Ibid*, p. 41.
4. *Ibid* pp. 41-42.
5. Briggs III, P. 214.

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The affair of Pāthrī.

Hasan had fled from Pāthrī and taken refuge in the Hindu kingdom of Ahmadnagar. Malik Hasan, whose original name was Timā Bhaṭ, had been captured, like Fateh-ullāh Imād-ul-Mulk, in one of the campaigns against Vijayanagar, and brought up as a Muslim. When he attained power, and the governorship of a province to the border of which his ancestral home was adjacent, his relatives flocked from Vijayanagar to Ahmadnagar and urged his son, Ahmad Nizām Šāh, to include in his dominions the town of Pāthrī which lay on the southern border of Berār. Mukammal Khān wrote, by command of Burhān Nizām Šāh, proposing that Alā-ud-din Imād Šāh should cede Pāthrī to Ahmadnagar in exchange for a richer *paraganā*. Alā-ud-din refused to listen to this proposal and began to fortify Pathri. Mukammal Khān then complained that the establishment of a military post so close to the frontier would give rise to depredations on the part of the more lawless members of the garrison and consequent hostilities between Ahmadnagar and Berār. Alā-ud-din paid no heed to the protest, completed his fort and returned to Ellicpūr[1]. In 1518 Mukammal Khān, under the pretence that Burhān Nizām Šāh wished to enjoy the cool air of the hills above Daulatābād and visit the caves of Ellorā, collected a large army and marched in a leisurely way to Daulatabād, whence he made a sudden forced march on Pāthrī. The town was taken by escalade and the army of Ahmadnagar possessed itself of the whole *paraganā*. Burhān having attained his object returned to his capital leaving Miyān Muhammad Ghori, an officer who had greatly distinguished himself in the assault, to govern the *paraganā* with the title of Kāmil Khān[2]. Alā-ud-din Imād Šāh was not strong enough to resent this aggression at the time, and though it rankled in his memory he suffered himself to be cajoled six years later by Mullā Haidar Astrābādī, an envoy from Ahmadnagar, into an alliance with Burhān Nizām Šāh, who was then engaged in an acrimonious dispute with Ismāil Ādil Šāh regarding the possession of the fortress of Šolāpūr[1]. In 1524 a battle was fought at Šolapūr and Alā-ud-din, whose army was opposed to a wing of the Bijāpūrīs commanded by Asad Khān of Belgāṅv, was utterly defeated and withdrew by rapid marches and in great disorder to Gāvilgaḍ, forsaking his ally. Burhān Nizām Šāh was defeated and forced to retreat to Ahmadnagar.

Pāthrī recovered. War with Ahmadnagar and Bidar.

Alā-ud-din Imād Šāh now perceived his error in allying himself with Burhān, and Ismāil Ādil Šāh, anxious to weaken Ahmadnagar as much as possible, persuaded Sultān Kulī Kutub Šāh in 1527 to aid Alā-ud-din in recovering Pāthrī[4]. The allies succeeded in wresting Pāthrī for a time from Burhān, but he entered into an alliance with Amīr Barīd of Bidar and marched from Ahmadnagar to Pāthrī, the fortifications of which place, in the course of a cannonade of two months' duration, he succeeded in destroying. The place fell again into his hands

[1]. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 48 f. n.

[2]. *Ibid*, p. 48.

[3]. Briggs, III, pp. 216-17.

[4]. Briggs, III, p. 217.

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and once more the *paraganā* was annexed to Ahmadnagar and bestowed upon some cousins of Burhān Nizām Śāh who still adhered to the faith of their fathers. Burhān was not disposed to regard the recapture of Pāthrī as a sufficient punishment for Alā-du-din, and having captured Māhūr occupied southern Berār. He now turned his eyes towards Ellicpūr and formed the design of annexing the whole of Berār to his kingdom. Alā-ud-din, who had been deserted by Sultān Kulī Kutub Śāh, was in no position to face the allied armies of Ahmadnagar and Bidar. He, therefore, fled from Ellicpūr to Burhānpūr and sought assistance from Mirān Muhammad Śāh of Khāndeś. Mirān Muhammad responded to the appeal and marched with his unfortunate ally into Berār. The armies of Berār and Khāndeś met the allied armies of Ahmadnagar and Bidar in battle and were utterly defeated[1]. We are not told where this battle was fought, but it was probably not far south of Ellicpūr, towards which place the invaders had marched from Māhūr, and may have been in the immediate neighbourhood of the town. Burhān Nizām Śāh now held practically the whole of Berār and captured 300 elephants and the whole of Alā-ud-din's artillery and stores. Alā-ud-din and Mirān Muhammad Śāh fled to Burhānpūr and thence sent a message to Bahādur Śāh of Gujarāt, imploring his assistance. Bahādur Śāh snatched at the opportunity of interfering in the affairs of the Deccan and in 1528 sent a large army by way of Nandurbār and Sultānpūr towards Ahmadnagar, and also entered Berār. Burhān Nizām Śāh was much perturbed by the appearance of this formidable adversary on the scene. He made a wild appeal for help to Bābar, not yet firmly seated on the throne of Delhi, and more reasonable appeals to Sultān Kulī Kutub Śāh of Golconḍā and Ismāil Ādil Śāh of Bijāpūr. The former was engaged in warfare with the Hindus of Telaṅgaṇa and professed himself unable to send assistance, but Ismāil sent 6,000 picked horse and much treasure[2].

Bahadur Śāh entered Berār on the pretext of restoring Pāthrī and southern Berār to Alā-ud-din, but having seen the country he desired it for himself and made no haste to leave. This was very soon perceived by Alā-ud-din, who repented of his folly and ventured to suggest to Bahādur Śāh that the Ahmadnagar kingdom should be the theatre of war. He promised that if Bahādur Śāh would conquer that kingdom for him he would resign the kingdom of Berār. Bahādur Śāh accepted the offer and advanced against Burhān Nizām Śāh, who was now encamped on the plateau of Biḍ. Amīr Barid fell upon the advancing foes and slew two to three thousand of the Gujarātīs. This enraged Bahādur Śāh, who sent 20,000 horse against Amīr Barīd. The battle soon became general, and the Deccanis were defeated and fled to Parāṇḍā. Being pursued thither they again fled to Junnar, while Bahādur Śāh occupied Ahmadnagar. Here he remained until supplies, which the Deccanis cut off, became scarce. He then marched to Daulatābād and left Alā-ud-din

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1. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 51 f. n.
2. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 51-52 f. n.

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'Imād Śāh and the *amīrs* of Gujarāt to besiege that fortress while he encamped on the plateau above it. Burhān Nizām Śāh now made a fervent appeal to Ismāil Ādil Śāh for further assistance. Ismāil replied with expressions of goodwill, sent five hundred of his most efficient cavalry, and expressed regret that the hostile attitude of the *Rāyā* of Vijayanagar prevented him from leaving his capital. Burhān wanted the prestige of Ismāil's presence with his army, not a regiment of cavalry. In the circumstances he did the best he could, collected all the troops that could be raised between Junnar and Ahmadnagar and ascended into the Daulatābād plateau. Here a battle was precipitated by the incautious valour of Amīr Barīd, and although the issue hung for some time in the balance, the Deccanis were again defeated.

The problem now was not an equitable decision of the dispute between the kings of Berār and Ahmadnagar, but the expulsion of an inconvenient intruder who was strong enough to upset entirely the balance of power in the Deccan. Burhān Nizām Śāh opened negotiations with Alā-ud-din Imād Śāh and professed himself ready to restore all that had been captured by him. Alā-ud-din and Mirān Muhammad Śāh were now as apprehensive as their former enemies of Bahādur Śāh's intentions and approached Khudāvand Khān, the latter's minister, with a request that his master would leave the Deccan. Khudāvand Khān replied that Bahādur Śāh had not come uninvited, and that if the Sultāns of the Deccan composed their differences all would be well. The intimation was sufficient. Alā-ud-din Imād Śāh sent his surplus supply of grain to the defenders of Daulatābād and returned to Ellicpūr. Bahādur Śāh and Mirān Muhammad Śāh decided that they would do well to return to their capitals before the rains rendered both the country and the rivers impassable. They retreated after stipulating that the boundaries of Berār and Ahmadnagar should remain in *status quo ante bellum*, that the *khutbā* should be read in both kingdoms in the name of Bahādur Śāh and that both Alā-ud-din and Burhān should pay a war indemnity. Mirān Muhammad Śāh, after his return to Burhānpūr, called upon Burhān Nizām Śāh to fulfil his obligations by restoring to Alā-ud-din Pāthrī and Māhūr and all the elephants and other booty which had been captured near Ellicpūr. Burhān's reply to this message was to return to Mirān Muhammad some elephants which had been captured from him, on receiving which Mirān Muhammad desisted from urging on Burhān the fulfilment of his compact with Alā-ud-din[1]. The inveterate plotter Amīr 'Alī' Barīd had tried to tamper with the loyalty of the contingent sent from Bijāpūr to the assistance of Ahmadnagar, and Ismāil, to punish him, marched to Bidar. Amīr Barīd, now an old man, left the defence of the fortress to his sons and sought help of Sultān Kulī Kutub Śāh. Ismāil defeated a relieving force from Golcondā and Amīr Alī withdrew to Udgīr and begged 'Alā-ud-din' Imād Śāh to help him. 'Alā-ud-din' would not oppose Ismāil, but he

[1]. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 55 f.n.

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marched to Bidar and interceded with him, but Ismāil refused to hear of any negotiations until Bidar should have surrendered. It was surrendered when Amīr 'Alī', was about to be trampled to death by an elephant, and Ismāil entered the capital of the Deccan and took his seat upon the turquoise throne. He made Amīr 'Alī' a noble of the kingdom of Bijāpūr, and it was agreed that he and 'Alā-ud-din' Imād Śāh should aid in recovering the Rāicūr *Doāb* and then march northwards to recover Māhūr and Pāthrī for Alā-ud-din[1].

The recovery of the *Doāb* released Ismāil from his vow of abstinence and he celebrated the occasion by a select symposium, at which only 'Alā-ud-din' and Asad Khān Lārī at first sat with him, but both begged him to admit Amīr 'Alī' and he consented, but when "the Fox" entered quoted from the chapter "The Cave" in the *Korān* the words, "their dog, the fourth of them". Amīr Alī did not understand Arabic. But a burst of laughter from 'Alā-ud-din' apprised him that he was the victim of a jest, and he wept with humiliation and resentment, while the others laughed. Disturbing rumours that Bahādur meditated another invasion of the Deccan postponed the joint expedition for the recovery of Māhūr and Pāthrī, and 'Alā-ud-din' hastily returned to Berār[2].

War with Golconḍā.

This was not the last campaign in which the warlike but unfortunate Alā-ud-din was engaged. Sultān Kulī Kutub Śāh of Golconḍā, who had proclaimed himself independent in 1512[3], was for many years troubled by a Turk entitled Kivām-ul Mulk who had been appointed by Mahmud Śāh Bahamani governor of eastern Telangana and resisted Sultān Kulī's claims to dominion over that tract[4]. He maintained a guerilla warfare for years, with intermittent encouragement from Bidar and perhaps from Berār also, until he was defeated by Sultān Kulī at Gelgandal when he fled and took refuge with Alā-ud-din Imād Śāh in Berār. Sultān Kulī sent an envoy to Berār to demand the delivery of the fugitive and also the restoration of certain districts of south-eastern Berār which in the time of the Bahamanīs had belonged to Telangana. On Alā-ud-din's refusal to satisfy these demands Sultān Kulī marched northwards and Alā-ud-din marched from Ellicpūr to meet him. A battle was fought near Rāmgirī and the Berārīs were utterly defeated. Alā-ud-din fled to Ellicpūr and Sultān Kulī possessed himself of the disputed territory and returned to Golconḍā. Unfortunately the date of these operations is not given, but it appears probable that they took place after the departure of Bahādur Śāh of Gujarāt from the Deccan. The date of the death of Alā-ud-din Imād Śāh is not certain, but he probably died in 1529 and was succeeded by his son Daryā Imād Śāh[5].

1. Krishnadevaraya of Vijayanagar had recently died and in the confusion which followed his death, Ismāil was able to reduce both Raichur and Mudgal within three months; Haig, p. 437.
2. Ismail restored Bidar to Amir Ali. 4. Briggs, II. p. 527.
3. Briggs, III, p. 323. 5. Briggs, III, p. 489.

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Daryā Imād Šāh.

The early years of Daryā Imād Šāh's reign were uneventful and his kingdom enjoyed a much needed rest. On December 30, 1553 Husain Nizām Šāh succeeded, not without opposition, to the throne of Ahmadnagar[1]. His younger brother, Abdul Kādir, was induced to make a fight for the throne but was overcome and took refuge with Daryā Imād Šāh, under whose protection he remained until his death[2]. Shortly after Mirān Abdul Kādir's flight, Saif Ain-ul-Mulk, who had been commander-in-chief of the army of Ahmadnagar in the latter part of the reign of Burhān Nizām Šāh and on his death had espoused the cause of Abdul Kādir, became apprehensive lest Husain Nizām Šāh should punish him for his defection, and fled to Ellicpūr, where he took refuge with Daryā Imād Šāh[3]. He did not remain long in Berār but took service under Ibrāhim Ādil Šāh of Bijāpūr, who interested himself in plots to dethrone Husain Nizām Šāh. Ibrāhim's interference brought about a war between Bijāpūr and Ahmadnagar and Husain sent a Brāhman envoy named Viśvās Rāv to Daryā Imād Šāh to ask him for aid. Daryā sent 7,000 cavalry to his neighbour's assistance[4] and Husain then advanced to Šolāpūr, which place Ibrāhim was besieging[5]. In the battle which ensued the armies of Ahmadnagar and Berār were on the point of fleeing when Ibrāhim Ādil Šah was attacked by doubts of the loyalty of Saif-Ain-ul-Mulk, who commanded a large body of his cavalry, and suddenly returned to Bijāpūr, leaving the allies in possession of the field. Husain then returned to Ahmadnagar and sent the cavalry of Berār back to Ellicpūr.

Alliance with Ahmadnagar.

After the death of Ibrāhim Ādil Šāh I in 1558 Husain Nizām Šāh persuaded Ibrāhim Kutub Šāh of Golcoṇḍā to join in an attempt to capture Gulburgā and the eastern districts of the Bijāpūr kingdom. The attempt failed owing to Ibrāhim Kutub Šāh's distrust of his ally and Alī Ādil Šāh, who had succeeded to the throne of Bijāpūr, resolved to revenge himself on Husain Nizām Šāh, who sought strength in an alliance with Darya Imād Šāh[6]. In 1558 the kings of Berār and Ahmadnagar met at Sonpeṭh on the Godāvarī where Daulat Šāh Begam, Daryā's daughter, was married to Husain, Sonpeṭh receiving the name of Iśratābād in honour of the event[7].

Invasion of Ahmadnagar.

Meanwhile Ali Ādil Šāh had formed an alliance with Ibrāhim Kutub Šah and Sadaśivarāya of Vijayanagar and in 1560 these allies invaded the dominions of Ahmadnagar. Husain Nizām Šāh's trust lay in Alī Barid Šāh of Bidar, Daryā Imād Šāh of Berār, and Mirān Mubārak II of Khāndeś. Unfortunately for him influences had been at work to break up this alliance. The

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1. Briggs, III, pp. 257-58.
2. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 101.
3. Briggs, III, p. 105.
4. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 110.
5. Briggs, III, p. 490.
6. Briggs, III, p. 239.
7. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 118.

Khān-i-Jahān, brother of Alī Barīd Śāh, was friendly with Alī Ādil Śāh and had entered the service of Daryā Imād Śāh, whom he dissuaded from joining Husain Nizām Śāh. He then led an army of 5,000 cavalry and infantry from Berār into the Ahmadnagar kingdom and laid waste those northern tracts which lay out of the way of the more powerful invaders from the south. Against this force Husain Nizām Śāh sent nearly 3,000 horse under Mullā Muhammad Niśāburī[1]. The army of Berār was utterly defeated and the Khān-i-Jahān, ashamed to return to Berar, joined the army of Alī Ādil Śāh[2]. Jahāngir Khān the Deccani now became commander-in-chief of the army of Berār, and had an easier task than his predecessor, for by this time the members of the southern alliance had closed round Ahmadnagar and left Daryā Imād Śāh's army little occupation but that of plundering a defenceless country. The allies, however, quarrelled. Ibrāhim Kutub Śāh, who had gradually been drawn into sympathy with Husain Nizām Śāh, withdrew rapidly and secretly to Golcondā, leaving behind him a small force which joined Husain. Jahāngīr Khān with the army of Berār also went over to Husain who was enabled, by this accession of strength, to cut off the supplies of Alī Ādil Śāh and Sadāśivarāya, who were besieging Ahmadnagar. Sadāśivarāya, who perceived that he had been drawn by Alī Ādil Śāh into no easy undertaking, was now in a mood to entertain proposals of peace, and when Husain Nizām Śāh sued for peace he agreed to retire on three conditions, one of which was that Jahāngir Khān, whose activity in intercepting the supplies of the besiegers had caused much suffering among them should be put to death. Husain was base enough to comply and the commander of the army of Berār was assassinated[3]. Fortunately for Husain his father-in-law was either too weak or too poor spirited to resent this act of gross ingratitude, and the kingdom of Ahmadnagar was by these shameful means, freed of its invaders. Daryā Imād Śāh did not long survive his disgraceful acquiescence in his servant's death. He died in 1561 and was succeeded by his son Burhān Imād Śāh.

We have no certain information of the age of Burhān when he succeeded his father. He is described as a boy or a young man, but he was not too young to resent the murder of Jahāngir Khān[4] for when Husain Nizām Śāh and Ibrahim Kutub Śāh invaded the territory of Bijāpūr in 1562 and Alī Ādil Śāh and Sadāśivarāya of Vijayanagar marched against them, Burhan not only refused to respond to Husain's appeal for assistance but prevented Alī Barīd Śāh of Bidar from joining him. Husain Śāh then abandoned the siege of Kalyāṇī, in which he was engaged, and sent his ladies and heavy baggage to Ausā. The kings of Ahmadnagar and Golcondā now found themselves opposed by Alī Ādil Śāh of Bijāpūr, Sadāśivarāya of Vijayanagar, Alī Barīd Śāh of

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Burhān Imād Śāh.

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[1]. Briggs, III, p. 240.

[2]. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 122 f.n.

[3]. *Ibid*, p. 123 f.n.

[4]. Briggs, III, p. 243.

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Burhān Imād Śāh.

Bidar, and Burhān Imād Śāh of Berār. and advanced to meet them halting within twelve miles of their camp. On the following day Husain and Ibrāhim advanced against the enemy, the former making the camp of Sadāśivarāya and the latter that of Alī Ādil Śāh, Alī Barīd Śāh, and Burhān Imād Śāh his objective. When they were well on their way heavy rain fell, and Husain's artillery and elephants stuck fast in the mire[1]. Any further advance was out of the question, and Husain returned to his camp with only forty out of seven hundred guns. Meanwhile Murtazā Khān with the Marāṭhā officers of Bijāpūr had been sent by Alī Ādil Śāh to warn the allies to prepare for battle. On his way he came upon the abandoned guns of Husain Nizām Śāh, and learnt that Husain had returned to his camp. Murtazā informed his master of what he had found and Alī Ādil Śāh and Sadāśivarāya sent troops to take possession of the guns. After securing the guns these troops fell in with the forces of Ibrāhim Kutub Śāh, attacked them, and defeated them. Ibrāhim reformed his beaten army in rear of Husain Nizām Śāh's camp and made a stand which enabled Husain Nizām Śāh to come to his aid. The troops of Bijāpūr and Vijayanagar were repulsed, but Husain Nizām Śāh was much dispirited by the result of the day's fighting and by Ibrāhim's failure, and on the following day, when the armies of Bijāpūr, Vijayanagar, Berār and Bidar advanced to the attack, he and Ibrāhim Kutub Śāh fled in the direction of Ahmadnagar, leaving their camps in the hands of the enemy. At Ausā they separated, Ibrāhim returning to Golconḍā, while Husain retired to his capital, followed by the allies. Husain did not venture to defend his capital but, having provisioned the fortress, fled onwards to Junnar. The allies sat down to besiege Ahmadnagar. Alī Ādil Śāh however persuaded Sadāśivarāya to leave Ahmadnagar and to pursue Husain Nizām Śāh to Junnar[2], but before the allies left Ahmadnagar Burhān Imād Śāh and Alī Barīd Śāh having quarrelled with the *Rājā* of Vijayanagar, retired to their own kingdoms.

On Burhān's return to Berār he was seized and imprisoned in Narnālā by Tufāl Khān, the Deccani, one of his own *amīrs*, who henceforth exercised regal functions in Berār[3]. Tufāl Khān refused to join the confederacy of the Muhammadan Sultāns of the Deccan which was formed in 1564 for the purpose of overthrowing the power of Vijayanagar and Berār had, therefore, no share in the decisive victory of Tālīkoṭa[4]. Tufāl Khān's refusal to join the Muhammadan league may be attributed to his sense of the insecurity of his position as an usurper, to apathy, to Hindu sympathies, or to the view that the power of Vijayanagar could always be usefully employed for the maintenance of the balance of power between the Muhammadan kingdoms of the Deccan, but the refusal, whatever the motive may have been, brought much trouble and suffering to Berār.

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[1]. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 125 f.n.
[2]. Briggs, III, pp. 245-46.
[3]. Briggs, III, p. 47.
[4]. *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 140-41 f.n.

Invasion of Berār.

On June 6, 1565, Husain Nizām Śāh died and was succeeded in Ahmadnagar by his son, Murtazā Nizām Śāh I, who persuaded Alī Ādil Śāh to join him in invading Berār in order to punish Tufāl Khān for his refusal to join the league against Vijayanagar. In 1566 the allies invaded the kingdom from the south and south-west and devastated it with fire and sword as far north as Ellicpūr, destroying all standing crops. They remained in Berār, wasting the country and slaughtering its inhabitants until the approach of the rainy season, when Tufāl Khān approached Alī Ādil Śāh with an enormous quantity of treasure and besought him to use his influence to induce Murtazā to retire. Alī undertook the task and succeeded in persuading Murtazā, on the pretext that the rains would render marching and campaigning on the black cotton soil of Berār a difficult task, to retire to Ahmadnagar, while he himself returned to Bijāpūr[1].

Annexation of Berār by Ahmadnagar.

The unfortunate little kingdom was not, however, destined to enjoy a long rest. In 1572 Caṅgīz Khān, Murtazā Nizām Śāh's minister, brought about a meeting between his master and Ādil Śāh at which the two kings entered into a treaty under the terms of which Murtazā was to be allowed to annex Berār and Bidar without hindrance from Bijāpūr while Alī was to be allowed to appropriate so much of the dismembered kingdom of Vijayanagar as should be equal in revenue to those two kingdoms[2]. Ibrāhim Kutub Śāh was left out of the arrangement. In the same year Murtazā Nizām Śāh, in pursuance of the treaty, encamped at Pāthrī and prepared to invade Berār. A pretext was not wanting. He sent Mullā Haidar of Kāś to Tufāl Khān to call him to account for keeping Burhan Imād Śāh in confinement. Tufāl Khān was ordered to release his king, to be obedient to him in all things and to refrain from interfering in the government of Berār. The letter concluded with a threat that disobedience would entail punishment and with three couplets warning Tufāl Khān against undertaking a task which was beyond his power. Tufāl Khān was much alarmed by this message and took counsel of his son, Śamśir-ul-Mulk, who had a reputation for valour and was astute enough to detect Murtazā's object. The solicitude for Burhān Imād Śāh, he said, was a mere pretence, and Murtazā's object was the annexation of Berār to Ahmadnagar[3]. He bade his father take heart, assuring him that the resources of Berār were equal to those of Ahmadnagar, which was not the case, and advised him to send Murtazā's envoy back unanswered. Murtazā, as soon as he heard of Mullā Haidar's dismissal, marched from Pāthrī towards Ellicpūr, and Śamśir-ul-Mulk, who commanded the advanced guard of the army of Berār, marched to meet him. The site of the battle is, unfortunately, not recorded[4], but the

[1] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 141.

[2] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 160.

[3] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 162-63 f.n.

[4] The battle was fought near Bidar, so tells Sayyad Ali Tabatabai—*Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 163.

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armies must have met either in the Amrāvatī district or the Akolā district. Śamśir-ul-Mulk fell upon the advanced guard of the army of Ahmadnagar and defeated it. Caṅgīz Khān threw forward reinforcements and Śamśir-ul-Mulk called upon his father for support.

Tufāl Khān at once marched to support his son and Caṅgīz Khān, being apprised of the approach of the main body of the army of Berār, sent forward Khudāvand Khān, Jamśid Khān, Bahrī Khān, Rustam Khān, and Candā Khān to the support of the African *amīrs* of Ahmadnagar, on whom the brunt of the fighting was falling, and followed them in person with Murtazā's guards and three thousand mounted 'foreign' archers, who were evidently regarded as the flower of the army of Ahmadnagar. The battle soon became general. Caṅgīz Khān, who had as his body-guard five hundred of his own followers, spared no efforts to win the day. With his own hand he cut down Tufāl Khān's standard bearer, and the army of Berār was routed. Tufāl Khān and his son fled to Ellicpūr and Caṅgīz Khān returned with 270 captured elephants to the camp of Murtazā Nizām Śāh, who no longer made any attempt to conceal the real object of his enterprise. He did not hasten in pursuit of his defeated enemy or attempt to gather at once the fruits of victory, but remained in his camp and issued *farmāns* to all the Hindu revenue officials of Berār informing them that they had nothing to fear, and that if they would tender their allegiance to him they would find him a lenient and sympathetic master. The descendant of a line of Brāhmaṇ *patvārīs* knew with whom he had to deal. The hereditary Hindu officials cared little for Burhān Tufāl, or Murtazā but much for the blessings of peace, and they were not slow to perceive which was the stronger side. They hastened to the camp of the invader, where they were received with honour and whence they were dismissed with rewards and promises[1]. Murtazā Nizām Śāh. having thus made sure his foothold, advanced on Ellicpūr, whereupon Tufāl Khān and Śamśir-ul-Mulk, whose power had been so utterly broken in the field that the respite afforded to them by Murtazā's delay had profited them nothing, fled into the Melghāṭ. Through the hills and jungles of this tract they were pursued for six months at the end of which time they found themselves hemmed in by the forces of Ahmadnagar in a position whence no outlet was apparent. The invader refrained from pressing his advantage and Tufāl Khān succeeded in extricating himself and escaped to Burhāṇpūr. Murtazā, having pursued him as far as the Tāpī, sent a letter to Mirān Muhammad Śāh II, king of Khāndeś, threatening to invade his country if the fugitives were harboured. Mirān Muhammad sent the letter, without comment, to Tufāl Khān, who at once understood that he could find no asylum in Khāndeś and returned by an unfrequented road to Berār. At the same time he sent a letter to Akbar[2], then seated on the throne of Delhi, saying that he

[1] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 166.

[2] Briggs, III, pp. 255-56.

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regarded himself as one of the emperor's soldiers and Berār as a province of the empire, which had been invaded by the Deccanis. He sought, he said the appointment of warden of the marches and asked for assistance, promising to surrender Berār to Akbar's officers when they should arrive. Akbar was not at this time prepared to undertake an expedition to the Deccan and no immediate answer was returned to Tufāl Khān's effusion. Meanwhile both Tufāl Khān and his son Śamśir-ul-Mulk now separated were hard pressed by Murtazā and were fain to seek the protection afforded by stone walls. Tufāl Khān shut himself up in Narnāḷā while Śamśir-ul-Mulk sought refuge in Gāvilgaḍ[1], and Murtazā Nizām Śāh laid siege to Narnāḷā. Meanwhile Tufāl Khān's letter had reached Akbar's camp in Gujarāt and one of the emperor's *amirs* wrote to Murtazā Nizām Śāh saying that Tufāl Khān, having submitted to the emperor, was one of his vassals and that Murtazā would do well to desist from harassing him, and that Berār, which was a province of the empire, should be evacuated at once[2]. This absurdly bombastic message was treated with the contempt which it deserved and both Narnāḷā and Gāvilgaḍ were closely besieged. The former fell before the end of the year, and Tufāl Khān and Burhān Imād Śāh fell into Murtazā's hands. Śamśir-ul-Mulk on hearing of the fall of Narnāḷā and the capture of his father surrendered Gāvilgaḍ to Murtazā's officers on condition that his life should be spared[3]. Murtazā Nizām Śāh sent Burhān Imād Śāh, Tufāl Khān, Śamśir-ul-Mulk, and all their relatives and attendants, to the number of about forty souls, to a fortress in the Ahmadnagar kingdom where, after a short time, they all perished. We have various accounts of the manner of their death and in one passage it is hinted that they may possibly have died a natural death, but the sudden, simultaneous, and convenient extinction of so large a number of obnoxious persons cannot have been fortuitous. Another story is that the whole party was confined in a small room and the windows were shut upon them, the result being a tragedy similar in all respects to that of the Black Hole of Calcutta, save that in this case there were no survivors. Elsewhere it is said that the whole party was strangled or smothered individually. The Black Hole story appears to be the most probable, but whichever story is true the fact remains that the Imād Śāhī dynasty was utterly extinguished in 1572[4] and that Berār became a province of the Nizām Śāhī kingdom of Ahmadnagar.

Nizām Śāhī of Ahmadnagar.
Berār, a province of Ahmadnagar.

Murtazā apportioned the districts of Berār to his nobles, and now wished to return to Ahmadnagar and enjoy the fruits of victory, but Caṅgīz Khān incited him to further exertions.

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[1] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p 167.

[2] Briggs, III, pp. 255-56.

[3] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 171.

[4] There is a discrepancy as to this date. From the detailed account of the siege of Narnala it appears that the fortress did not fall until 1574, but the date of its fall is also given in a chronogram which works by 982-1572 A.D.

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Alī Ādil Śāh, he said, was occupied with the siege of Bankāpūr, and the opportunity of gaining possession of Bidar, to which as well as to Berār, his treaty with Bijāpūr entitled him, was too good to be lost. Murtazā was thus persuaded to march against Bidar, and while he was thus employed affairs in Berār took a new turn. Mirān Muhammad II of Khāndeś seized the opportunity of harassing an inconveniently powerful neighbour, and, as soon as Murtazā Nizām Śāh was engaged with Bidar, set up the son of Burhān Imād Śāh's foster mother as king of Berār alleging that he was a son of Daryā Imād Śāh and sent the pretender to the frontier of Berār with 6,000 horse[1]. Many adherents of the extinct family either believed the fable or were willing to adopt any pretext for maintaining the independence of Berār, and rose in rebellion, driving the officers of Murtazā Nizām Śāh from their military posts. A revolt in which the governor recently appointed by Murtazā lost his life, encouraged Muhammad to intervene, and he sent an army under the command of his minister Zain-ud-din into Berār to support the cause of the pretender[2]. The rebels numbered eight or nine thousand, and their activity was a serious menace to the stability of the newly established authority. Khudāvand Khān and Khurśid Khān, the two officers who had been appointed to administer Berār, sent a message to Murtazā Nizām Śāh imploring him to return. The king recalled Cangīz Khān, who had preceded him to Bidar, despatched Sayyad Murtazā Sabzāvarī with 8,000 horse to Berār and followed him with the main body of the army[3]. Cangīz Khān returned from Bidar by forced marches and begged the king to make a short halt in order that the troops might rest. Murtazā Nizām Śāh refused to listen to the proposal and pressed on. Mirān Muhammad Śāh, who was hovering on the border of Berār, ready to make a descent as soon as Murtazā Nizām Śāh should be safely out of the way, was much disconcerted by his adversary's activity and fled in haste to his fortress capital of Asirgaḍ. Sayyad Murtazā, who preceded Murtazā Nizām Śāh, having come up with the Berār Pretender, at the head of eight thousand horse, obliged him to flee, and his adherents to disperse. The army of Ahmadnagar now invaded and laid waste Khāndeś and Asirgaḍ was on the point of falling into their hands when Mirān Muhammad Śāh bought off Murtazā Nizām Śāh with a large sum of money[4]. Murtazā Nizām Śāh now returned to Berar where, in the course of a complicated intrigue connected with the invasion of Bidar, he poisoned Cangīz Khān in 1574. He then returned to Ahmadnagar and in 1575 appointed Sayyad Murtazā Sabzāvarī governor of Berār[5]. The new governor was assisted in his administration of the province by a large number of *amīrs*, the chief of whom were Khudāvand Khān, the

[1] Briggs, III, p. 256.

[2] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 172.

[3] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 174.

[4] Haig, p. 455.

[5] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 181.

Nizām Śāhī of Ahmadnagar.

Rumours of invasion from the north.

Muvallad, Jamśīd Khān, Bahrī Khān Kāzībaś, Rustam Khān, the Deccani, Caghtāi Khān, the Turkman, Tir Andāz Khān Astrābādī, Śir Khān Tārśizī, Husain Khān Tunī, Candā Khān, the Deccani, and Dastur, the eunuch.

Another pretender, styling himself 'Firuz' Imād Śāh, arose in Berār, but was captured and put to death by Sayyad Murtazā. In 1576 it was reported that Akbar was preparing to invade the Deccan[1]. Murtazā Nizām Śāh, now sunk in sloth and debauchery, made a feeble and confused effort to take the field. He moved to the north, with a few troops, but in a covered litter, to observe the movements of the Moghal army, and to be in readiness to defend his dominions[2], and would have marched to attack the Emperor, had he not been prevented by the entreaties of his nobility. Berār was placed in a state of defence, one of the officers employed there being Akbar's rebellious kinsman, Muzaffar Husain Mirzā. The Imperial troops were withdrawn and the danger passed but the restless and turbulent Muzaffar Husain Mirzā turned against those who had befriended him and attempted to make himself master of Berār, but Sayyad Murtazā defeated him at Añjangāñv[3] and he fled into Khāndeś[4]. He was better served in Berār than he deserved. Bahrām Khān, who was commandant of Gāvilgaḍ under Sayyad Murtazā Sabzāvarī, put the fortress into a state of thorough repair and has left a record of his zeal in an inscription on the bastion which bears his name. The chronogram in the inscription gives the date A.H. 985 equivalent to A.D. 1577. Fortunately these precautions were unnecessary, for Akbar's journey was no more than a trip from Āgrā to Ājmer and Ahmadnagar and Berār were left for a time in peace. The rumour of danger from the north had, however, galvanized the wretched Murtazā Nizām Śāh into something like activity, and early in 1578 Sayyad Murtazā Sabzāvarī was summoned to Ahmadnagar in order that he might parade the army of Berār before the king. This effort to secure military efficiency in the frontier province had most unfortunate results. Murtazā Nizām Śāh's unworthy favourite Sāhib Khān, a Deccani, grossly insulted one of the foreign officers of the army of Berār, with the result that the old quarrel between the foreigners on one side and the Deccanis and the Africans on the other was renewed[5]. A fight followed in which the king identified himself with the Deccanis, whereupon most of the foreign officers left his service and entered that of Golcoṇḍā and Bijāpūr. In the confusion which followed, Salābat Khān grasped the reins of government and Murtazā Nizām Śāh was left powerless. He attempted to recover possession of Sāhib Khān and bespoke the good offices of Sayyad Murtazā Sabzāvarī to this end, but Sayyad was unable, and probably unwilling to save the wretch and Sāhib Khān was ultimately slain by Khudāvand Khān, one of the *amīrs* of

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1 Haig, p. 456.

2 *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 183.

3 *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, p. 184.

4 Raja 'Ali' Khan seized him and surrendered him to Akbar.

5 Briggs, III, p. 262.

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Berār[1]. Salābat Khān was now regent of Ahmadnagar and Sayyad Murtazā Sabzāvarī retained the governorship of Berār.

In 1584 Salābat Khān sent an order to Jamśīd Khān Śirāzī, who has been already mentioned as one of Sayyad Murtazā's officers, directing him to join an embassy which was about to leave Ahmadnagar for Bijāpūr. As the order had not been countersigned by Murtazā Nizām Śāh, Jamśīd Khān replied that he could not obey it without the sanction of his superior officer, Sayyad Murtazā. The latter was much annoyed by Salābat Khān's assumption of the right to communicate an order to Jamśīd direct, and refused to permit Jamśīd to leave his post in Berār. The quarrel reached such a point that Sayyad Murtazā Sabzāvarī assembled the army of Berār and marched towards Ahmadnagar with the intention of overthrowing Salābat Khān, but the *amīrs* at the capital intervened and brought about a temporary peace, and Sayyad Murtazā returned to Berār.

Towards the end of the same year the quarrel was renewed and Sayyad Murtazā of Berār again marched on Ahmadnagar. Salābat Khān advanced to meet him, defeated him, and pursued him through Berār, and Sayyad Murtazā and his lieutenant fled by way of Burhānpūr to the court of Akbar[2]. Meanwhile Śāhzādā Burhān, a brother of Murtazā Nizām Śāh, had been persuaded by a party in Ahmadnagar to make an attempt to dethrone Murtazā and seize the throne. The plot was frustrated by Salābat Khān and Burhān was forced to flee in the guise of a *darveś* to the Koṅkaṇ whence he reached Gujarāt and joined Akbar's court.

Moghal raid on Berār.

Akbar now resolved to attempt the conquest of the Deccan and ordered his foster-brother, Mirzā Aziz Kukā entitled Khān-i-Āzam, who was then governor of Māḷvā to assemble the army of Māḷvā and march against Ahmadnagar taking Burhān with him. Salābat Khān replied by sending 20,000 horse to Burhāṇpūr. Mirzā Muhammad Takī, who commanded this force, succeeded in attaching Rājā Alī Khān of Khāndeś to the cause of Ahmadnagar despite an attempt by the Khān-i-Āzam to secure his adherence to the imperial cause. The Khān-i-Āzam's expedition was delayed by a quarrel between him and Śāhb-ud-din Ahmad Khān, the governor of Ujjain and Mirzā Muhammad Takī and Rājā Alī Khān carried the war into the enemy's country and encamped over against the Khān-i-Āzam at Haṇḍiā. The Khān-i-Āzam was unwilling to risk a battle, but by a rapid night march eluded the Deccanis and entered Berār by a circuitous route. The Moghal horse plundered Ellicpūr, hastened thence to Bāḷāpūr, and before the Deccanis, who had turned back from Haṇḍiā to meet them, could come up with them, retreated by way of Nandurbār into Māḷvā[3]. Rājā Ali Khān then returned

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[1] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 197-98 f.n.

[2] The battle was fought at Jeurghat, a distance of a few miles from Ahmadnagar. For further details see *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 232—35.

[3] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 236—37.

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to Burhānpūr and Mirzā Muhammad Takī to Ahmadnagar. Akbar did not at once pursue his project of adding the Deccan to his empire and Berār had peace for a few years.

Accession of Ismāil Nizām Śāh.

In June, 1588, Murtazā Nizām Śāh, who had attempted to destroy his son Mirān Husain by setting fire to his bedding, was, in return, suffocated in his bath by the prince, who succeeded him as Husain Nizām Śāh II. Husain II was put to death after a reign of less than ten months on April 1, 1589 and the *amīrs* of Ahmadnagar raised to the throne Ismāil, the son of the fugitive Burhān[1]. Jamāl Khān, who had been one of Sayyad Murtazā's lieutenants in Berār, was now regent in Ahmadnagar. He belonged to the heretical sect of the *Mahdavis* and in the name of Ismāil Nizām Śāh, who was too young to understand theological disputes, established their religion in Ahmadnagar with the result that the kingdom Akbar's puppet and declined the proffered aid Akbar then became a refuge for most of the *Mahdavis* throughout India. The *amīrs* of Berār were much annoyed by the spread of the heresy and in 1589 released Salābat Khān[2], who had been imprisoned by Murtazā Nizām Śāh in Kherlā, and induced him to lead them against Ahmadnagar, while Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II of Bijāpūr invaded the kingdom from the south. Jamāl Khān defeated the *amīrs* of Berār at Paiṭhaṇ on the Godāvarī, then the southern boundary of the province, and the Bijāpūrīs at Āsṭī. Salābat Khān made his peace with Jamāl Khān and returned to his *jahāgīr* to die.

Burhān's first attempt to gain his kingdom.

In 1590 the time was ripe for the invasion of Berār and the Deccan by Akbar. The *amīrs* of Berār were disaffected and disgusted with the heterodox doctrines now fashionable at the court of Ahmadnagar and the elevation to the throne of the nished Akbar with a pretext for aggression. He offered Burhan young Ismāil, the son of the emperor's protege Burhān, furas many troops as he should consider necessary for the purpose of gaining the throne of his ancestors, now unjustly held by his son, but Burhān had no desire to reign at Ahmadnagar as bestowed upon him the *paragaṇā* of Haṇḍiā in *jahāgīr* and gave him letters to Rājā Alī Khān of Khāndeś, who was ordered to render him all the assistance in his power. Burhān took up his quarters at Haṇḍiā and issued letters to the principal officers and landholders of Berār and the rest of the Ahmadnagar kingdom reminding them that he was their lawful king and exhorting them to be faithful to him. These letters were well received and Burhān received many assurances of loyalty and offers of assistance, including one from Jahāngīr Khān, the African warden of the northern marches of Berār. Burhān now entered Berār, with a small force of horse and foot which he had collected, by way of the Melghāṭ, but Jahāngīr Khān had repented of his promise, and attacked and defeated the small army, forcing Burhān to retire to Haṇḍiā in great disorder.

1 Briggs, III, pp. 271—73.

2 *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 266-67.

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From Haṇḍiā he went to Burhāṇpūr where he sought assistance from Rājā Alī Khān who received him kindly and not only promised him aid but invoked the aid of Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II of Bijāpūr who, smarting under the recent defeat of his forces by Jamāl Khān, readily sent an army northwards.

Jamāl Khān again defeated the Bijāpūrīs[1] but had not recovered from the fatigue of the fight when he heard that the nobles of Berār had declared for Burhān, who was on the point of entering Berār. The story of the campaign which followed need not be recounted in detail here. Burhān and Rājā Alī Khān defeated and slew Jamāl Khān at Rohankheḍ in the Bulḍhāṇā district and captured the young Ismāil[2]. The whilom protege of Akbar now ascended the throne of Ahmadnagar as Burhān Nizām Śāh II, and appointed Nūr Khān, governor of Berār.

The Moghals invited to Ahmadnagar.

Burhān died on April 28, 1595, after a troublesome reign of rather more than four years, and was succeeded by his elder son Ibrāhim Nizām Śāh, who had been previously passed over in favour of his younger brother Ismāil on the score that his mother was a negress and his personal appearance unkingly. The affairs of the State were now in the utmost confusion. Rival factions contended at the council board while Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh on the south and Akbar on the north prepared to invade the kingdom. Ibrāhim Nizām Śāh after a reign of less than four months was slain in battle with the Bijāpūrīs, and a faction attempted to raise to the throne Ahmad, son of Śāh Tahir, who had pretended to be the son of Sultān Muhammad Khudāvand[3] on August 16, 1595, one of the sons of Burhān Nizām Śāh I. But the circumstances of Śāh Tāhir's birth had already been secretly investigated, and there were those at the capital who knew the details of the inquiry and published them. Nevertheless the impostor's faction held the field for a time, and when they were hard pressed in Ahmadnagar they sent a message to Sultān Murād, Akbar's fourth son, and implored him to come from Gujarāt to their aid. Murād had a general commission from his father to attempt the conquest of Berār and Ahmadnagar whenever the time should seem propitious and at once made preparations to invade the Deccan. Meanwhile, however, an unexpected quarrel in the camp of those who opposed the impostor's claims enabled Miyān Mañjū, his chief supporter, to emerge from Ahmadnagar and attack them. He defeated them on October 1, 1595, and, deeming himself now strong enough to dispense with foreign aid, began to regret his invitation to Murād. Murād, however, was already on his way and when he reached the borders of the Ahmadnagar kingdom with the Khān-i-Khānān, Abdur Rahim and Rājā Alī Khān of Khāndeś, Miyān Mañjū leaving Ansār Khān, in whose charge was Cānd Bibī, in command of Ahmadnagar, fled with

[1] *Ahmadnagarchi Nizamshahi*, pp. 272—74.

[2] *Ibid*, p. 275.

[3] *Ibid*, p. 282 f.n.

his protege Ahmad to Ausā, where he attempted to raise an army and to enlist the aid of Ibrāhim Ādil Śāh II and Muhammad Kulī Kutub Śāh of Golcoṇḍā.

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Cānd Bibī soon asserted her supremacy in Ahmadnagar and had Bahādur, the infant son of Ibrāhim Nizām Śāh, proclaimed king in place of the impostor set up by Miyān Mañjū. The imperial army meanwhile closely besieged Ahmadnagar, and though Sultān Murād did not succeed in capturing the city he was only bought off by a treaty of peace concluded in April, 1596, one of the conditions of which was the cession of Berār to the empire. On the conclusion of peace Murād occupied Berār which thus became once more, after the lapse of two centuries and a half, an appanage of the crown of Delhi. After the withdrawal of the imperial army Bahādur Nizām Śāh was seated on the throne of Ahmadnagar while the pretender Ahmad was provided for by the Sultān of Bijāpūr.

During the early days of the Moghal occupation of Berār the old capital, Ellicpūr, lost some of its importance. In the first place its distance from the Ahmadnagar frontier and from the high road between Hindustan and the Deccan, which ran through the western corner of Berār, rendered its selection as a military capital impossible, and in the second, although Berār had been ceded to the empire by a treaty, the fortresses of Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā were held by *amīrs* of Ahmadnagar[1] and the slothful Murād was not anxious to besiege them. He therefore made Bāḷāpūr his principal military post, and built himself a palace at a village about twelve miles west of that town.

Death of Murād and fall of Ahmadnagar.

Hostilities with Ahmadnagar were renewed by an attempt to seize Pāthri, and on February 8, 1597, the Khān-i-Khānān was defeated at Sonpeṭh on the Godāvarī by the troops of Ahmadnagar aided by contingents from Bijāpūr and Golconḍa. On the following day, however, he retrieved his defeat and put the allied Deccanis to flight. Having returned to Jālnā, his headquarters, the Khān-i-Khānān ordered the despatch of troops to Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā, but Murād now interfered, and announced his intention of taking the field against Ahmadnagar, and when the Khān-i-Khānān insisted that the fortresses of Northern Berār should first be reduced Murād wrote to his father and complained of the Khān-i-Khānān's apathy. In 1598 that officer was recalled and Abul Fazl was sent to the Deccan in his place with orders to reduce Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā, which duty he carried out. He failed, however, to send aid to the Moghal governor of Bīḍ who, having been defeated and wounded in the field, was besieged in that fortress, and reported to Akbar, Abul Fazl's failure to come to his aid. Akbar now recognised that the only officer capable of managing affairs in the Deccan was the Khān-i-Khānān, whose only fault was his intolerance of the slothful and drunken Murād. The difficulty was solved by the death of Murād in 1599 at Śāhpūr, his palace near Bāḷāpūr, from the effects of drink and

[1] Haig, p. 465.

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incontinence. Sultān Dāniyal, Akbar's youngest son, was now sent to the Deccan under the tutelage of the Khān-i-Khānān. In the year 1600 A.D. Ahmadnagar was captured by the Khān-i-Khānān and Asirgaḍ by Akbar and Sultān Dāniyal became governor of Khāndeś—now renamed Dandeś-Berār and Ahmadnagar.

The Ain-i-Akbari.

A detailed account of Berār was added to the *Ain-i-Akbari* in 1596-97, immediately after the treaty of Ahmadnagar under which the province was ceded to the empire, and as the Moghal officers cannot have had time, before the account was written, to settle the province and readjust boundaries of its administrative divisions we may regard this description as an account of the province as it was administered by the Nizām Śāhī and Imād Śāhī kings, and probably also by the Bahamanīs. It was divided into thirteen *sarkārs* or revenue districts, of which the largest and richest was Gāvil which contained forty-four *paragaṇās* and corresponded roughly with the Amarāvatī district. Some of its *paragaṇās* lay beyond the present limits of the district, e.g., Sirson (Murtizāpūr), Mana. Karañjā Bibī, Manba, Papal and Kamargāṅv, now in the Akolā district, Ner Parsopant in the Yeotmāḷ district, and Arvi and Aṣṭi in the Central Provinces. The district was assessed at rather more than 28 lakhs of land revenue and 2½ lakhs of *suyarghal* or assignments for the pay of troops. Amarāvatī, not being a *paragaṇā* town, is not mentioned. Ellicpūr is described as 'a large city and the capital' and Gāvilgaḍ as 'a fortress of almost matchless strength' containing a spring at which weapons of steel were watered. Against two of the *paragaṇās* of the Melghāṭ we find such entries as '100 cavalry. 2,000 infantry-Goṇḍs', which indicate that the Korkus of the Melghāṭ, described by Abul Fazl as by the Deccani historians and by British administrators of a later day or 'Goṇḍs' were duly assessed for military service.

Malik Ambar.

After the imprisonment of Bahādur Nizām Śāh in Gvālior in 1599, Malik Ambar, the African, the most powerful remaining adherent of the Nizām Śāhī dynasty, raised to the throne Murtazā Nizām Śāh, the son of Śāh Alī, one of the sons of Burhān I, and established him in the fortress of Ausā. It is unnecessary to pursue through all its details the story of the long conflict which Ambar carried on with the *amirs* of the empire, but reference will be made to the struggle so far as it affected the Amarāvatī district.

In 1605 Sultān Dāniyal died of drink at Burhāṇpūr and in October of the same year Akbar died and was succeeded by his eldest son, Salim, who assumed the title of Jahāṅgīr.

In 1610 Malik Ambar recaptured Ahmadnagar, which had been held for the emperor by Khvājā Beg Mirzā Saffavī, and overran nearly the whole of Berār which for the greater part of Jahāṅgīr's reign was more often in the hands of Malik Ambar than in those of the imperial officers. So far as the land revenue was concerned the administration was probably *do-amli* each

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party collecting what it could, but the Moghals regarded Burhānpūr as their chief stronghold in the Deccan, and though a military post was usually maintained at Bāḷāpūr their hold in Berār can have been but slight. In 1616 Prince Khurram, Jahāngīr's third son, was appointed to the command of the troops in the Deccan, and on the arrival of this energetic prince the imperial cause revived and the Moghals strengthened their hold on Berār. Sultān Khurram was recalled later in the year and received the title of Śāh Jahān.

Malik Ambar occupies Berar.

In 1620 Malik Ambar surrounded Khañjar Khān[1] and capturing the whole of Bālāghāṭ, drove out the Moghal army, which escaped to Dārāb Khān at Bāḷāpūr. Dārāb Khān collecting fresh army attacked Malik Ambar but he had to retreat to Bāḷāpūr. Dārāb Khān faced the Marāṭhās on the Mehekar Ghāṭs for three months and more but the Moghal commanders who succeeded in pitched battles lost ground after each and were so harried by the marauding bands that they were forced to fall back on Burhānpūr. Jādhavrāv, the Marāṭhā chief, in the meanwhile, not being on good terms with Malik Ambar, joined the Moghals and hence the Moghals strengthened their position in the South Berār. Śāh Jahān was now sent to Burhānpūr with a large force. He relieved that city, which was beleaguered by the Deccanis and drove the latter through Berār, pursuing them as far as Khirki[2] which place he laid waste after defeating Malik Ambar in the field. Feeling further resistance hopeless, Malik Ambar sent envoys to express repentence and promised ever afterwards to remain loyal and to pay tribute. Śāh Jahān accepted Malik Ambar's submission. Berār was thus once more in the hands of the Moghals. In 1622 Śāh Jahān rebelled against his father, drawing into rebellion with him, Dārāb Khān, the governor of Berār. After extensive operations in Hindustān and Gujarāt the prince was pursued by his brother Parvez through Berār to Māhūr, whence he fled to Golcoṇḍā. The Deccanis, in spite of Śāh Jahān's rebellion, effected no lodgment in Berār, which remained in the hands of Parvez who appointed Asad Khān Māmurī, governor of Ellicpūr[3]. In 1624, however, Yākut Khān, the African, marched through Berār and besieged Burhānpūr, but fled when he heard of the approach of the Khān-i-Khānān and Parvez who had been temporarily transferred to Bengal in consequence of Śāh Jahān's appearance in arms in that province.

Treachery of the Khān-i-Jahān.

In 1625 Śāh Jahān submitted to his father and was pardoned, and in 1626 Parvez, now governor of Berār and the Deccan, died in Burhānpūr of colic and epilepsy brought on by excessive drinking. In the same year Malik Ambar died, in the eightieth year of his age, and his place was taken by his son Fateh Khān. Later in the same year Umdat-ul-Malk Khān-i-Jahān, who had been sent to the Deccan in consequence of the renewed activity of

[1] The Moghal Governor was besieged in Ahmadnagar.

[2] Afterwards named Aurangabad.

[3] Kale p. 37.

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Murtazā Nizām Śāh and Fateh Khān, sold the Bālāghāṭ of Berār to the Deccanis for three hundred thousand rupees. This treasonable bargain did not directly affect the Amarāvatī district, but it must have thrown the affairs of the whole province into great confusion.

Treachery of the Khān-i-Jahān.

Jahāṅgīr died on November 7, 1627, and in the course of the ensuing disputes regarding the succession, the affairs of the Deccan fell into great confusion, and between the Khān-i-Jahān, who was plotting with the enemy entirely for his own hand and other imperial officers who favoured the cause of Śāhriyār, Śāh Jahān's youngest brother, the fortunes of the Moghals in Berār and the Deccan were at a very low ebb.

Accession of Śāh Jahān.

Śāh Jahān ascended the imperial throne in Āgrā on February 4, 1628, and was thereafter, free to attend to the affairs of the empire[1]. At the beginning of his reign the Khān-i-Jahān was still governor of Berār and Khāndeś, but his bargain with the Deccanis was disturbed ; for the officers of Murtazā Nizām Śāh evacuated the Bālāghāṭ in obedience to an imperial *farmān*. The Nizām Śāhī commandant of Bīḍ alone held out and the Khān-i-Zamān was sent against him.

When this officer advanced, Murtazā Nizām Śāh sent a force of 6,000 Marāṭhā horse under Śahājī Bhosle to threaten his line of communication with Burhāṇpūr and this force operated in the northern *tahsils* of the Amrāvatī and Akolā districts and in Khāndeś. Unfortunately for the schemes of the Deccanis, the commandant of Bīḍ surrendered, and Daryā, the Rohillā, who held a *jahāgir* in the Amarāvatī district, fell upon Śahājī's Marāṭhā horse and dispersed them[2]. The Khān-i-Jahān was now summoned to court and deprived of his title, whereupon he fled to the Deccan and entered the service of Murtazā Nizām Śāh and on Murtazā refusing to surrender him Śāh Jahān set out for the Deccan at the end of 1629, reaching Burhāṇpūr early in 1630, where he was joined by Irādat Khān who had been appointed governor of Berār, Khāndeś, and the Deccan in the place of the disgraced Khān-i-Jahān. In the campaign which followed Śāh Jahān's arrival at Burhāṇpūr the Deccanis were driven from the Bālāghāṭ of Berār which they had again occupied, but it does not appear that the Amarāvatī district was the scene of hostilities unless the village of Taḷegāṅv, which was captured and burnt by the Daccanis, was Taḷegāṅv Daśasar. The war lasted until the fall of Daulatābād in 1633, but the Moghals had now advanced well into the Deccan and though the Amarāvatī district, with the rest of Berār, suffered severely from demands for supplies for the forces in the field it was freed from the curse of war within its borders.

Famine.

In 1630 the rains failed completely in Berār and the Deccan and partially elsewhere, and this calamity, combined with the heavy tax which the war had placed upon the tracts which it most

[1] The *Badshah-Nama* gives the date as February 15th. The *Muntakhab-ul-lubab* has February 14th and the *Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri* March 5th. [2] Y. M. Kale, p. 159.

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affected, produced one of the most severe famines ever known in Berār. "Buyers were ready to give a life for a loaf, but seller was there none. The flesh of dogs was sold as that of goats and the bones of the dead were ground with the flour sold in the market, and the punishment of those who profited by this traffic produced yet direr results, men devoured one another and came to regard the flesh of their children as sweeter than their love. The inhabitants fled afar to other tracts till the corpses of those who fell by the way impended those who came after and in the lands of Berār, which had been famous for their fertility and prosperity, no trace of habitation remained"[1]. This account, taken from the official record of Śāh Jahān's reign, is obviously hyperbolical, but cannot be dismissed as entirely imaginary. Berār had suffered much from protracted hostilities during which it had been the prey of hostile armies which had little respect for the rights of property, and the measures of relief undertaken were utterly inadequate.

Redistribution of Deccan provinces.

On November 27, 1634. Śāh Jahān issued a *farmān* reorganizing his territories in the Deccan. Hitherto the three *subhās* of Khāndeś, Berār, and the conquered districts of Nizām Śāhī dominions had formed a province under one provincial governor, whose headquarters were usually at Burhānpūr. Under Śāh Jahān's redistribution scheme those *paragaṇās* of the *sarkār* of Haṇḍiā which lay to the south of Narmadā were transferred from Māḷvā. Khāndeś and Berār. Khāndeś and the districts taken from Ahmadnagar, were formed into two *subhās* or divisions, the Bālāghāṭ on the south and the Payanghāṭ on the north. This arrangement[2] dismembered, for a time, the old province of Berār, for the line dividing the two new *subhās* followed the line of the edge of the plateau of the Bālāghāṭ, running, approximately, from Rohankheḍ on the west to Sāvargāṅv on the Wardhā river, on the east. The Amarāvatī district was thus included in the Pāyanghāṭ division, the *subhedār* of which was the Khān-i-Daurān, while Sipāhdār Khān, a valiant soldier, was subordinate to him at Ellicpūr.

The Deccan provinces again redistributed by Aurangzeb.

This scheme of reorganization was very soon amended. In 1636 Śāh Jahān appointed his third son, Auraṅgzeb, to the viceroyalty of the Deccan, where the possessions of the empire were redistributed into four *subhās* or divisions[3] :

(1) Daulatābād and Ahmadnagar, the nominal capital of which was Daulatābād, while Auraṅgzeb resided at Khirkī, which he renamed Auraṅgābād, (2) Telaṅgaṇa which included those tracts of north-western Telaṅgaṇa, which had been annexed to the empire, (3) Khāndeś, the administrative capital of which was Burhānpūr, while its principal military post was Asirgaḍ, and (4) Berār, the capital of which was Ellicpūr, 'in the neighbourhood of which lay the fortress of

[1] Elliot and Dowson, vol, VII, p. 24 c/f Abdul Hamid Lahori, *Badshah-Nama.*
[2] Y. M. Kale, pp. 140-41,
[3] Y. M. Kale, p. 141.

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Gāvil, situated on the crest of a hill and noted for its great strength[1].' Each of these division was governed by a *subhedār* in immediate subordination to Aurangzeb as viceroy, and the Khān-i-Daurān was retained as *subhedār* of Berār, with Sipāhdār Khān as deputy governor in Ellicpūr.

Campaign in Golconḍā and Gonḍwana.

In 1637 the Khān-i-Daurān with Sipāhdār Khān and the army of Berār undertook an expedition through the northern district of the kingdom of Golconḍā, where they collected tribute and thence they marched 'through the *sarkār* of Pavnār to besiege' Nāgpūr, which was held for Kokiyā, the Goṇḍ ruler of Devgaḍ. The army of Berār was joined by Kibā, the Goṇḍ ruler of Cāndā and Nāgpūr was taken. It was probably at this time that the *sarkār* of Devgaḍ was added to the province of Berār[2].

In 1642 Śāh Beg Khān, a commander of 4,000 horse, was appointed *subhedār* of Berār in place of the Khān-i-Daurān and two years later Allāh Vardī Khān was made a commander of 5,000 horse and received Ellicpūr in *jahāgīr* on the death of Sipāhdār Khān.

Accession of Aurangzeb and siege of Golconḍā.

Early in 1658 Aurangzeb left the Deccan in order to participate in the contest for the imperial throne which ensued on the failure of Śāh Jahān's health and in 1659 having worsted his competitors he gained the prize. He appointed Rājā Jai Singh to the viceroyalty of the Deccan and made Irij Khān *subhedār* of Berār. At this time a new power was gaining ascendency in the Deccan, *viz.*, that of the Marāṭhās under the leadership of Śivājī. Inspired by the ideal of carving a separate State, and backed by the zeal of his followers he had made deep incisions in the Ādil Śāhī kingdom of Bijāpūr and had carried out daring attacks against the Moghal possessions in the Deccan. Aurangzeb had sensed this danger and had sent his generals, Śāistā Khān, Mirzā Rājā Jai Singh and Diler Khān to contain Śivājī's activities in 1665. Śivājī realizing the tactical superiority of the Moghals, submitted and entered into an understanding with the Moghals under the terms of the treaty of Purandar. But the struggle with the Moghals which had begun was to last till the death of Aurangzeb in 1707. In 1667 Mirzā Rājā Jai Singh was recalled from the *subhedārī* of Deccan and Prince Muāzzam was appointed in his place. Śivājī while carrying out preparations for war with the Moghals adopted a conciliatory tone and came to terms with the new viceroy. Sambhājī was made a Moghal *mansabdār* and was given a *jahāgīr* in Berār. Sambhājī visited prince Muāzzam at Aurangābād on 4th November 1667 and after a short stay returned to Rājgaḍ while Marāṭhā officers continued to stay in Aurangābād. Within two years Śivājī had made thorough preparations for war with the Moghals. In 1670 he attacked and drove away the Moghals from the *Svarājya*. He also invaded the Imperial Moghal territory in all directions and carried daring raids into Khāndeś and Berār. In December 1670, he attacked, when least expected, the rich city of Karañjā in Berār and looted

[1] Y. M. Kale, p. 142.
[2] Y. M. Kale, p. 28.

Accession of Auraṅgzeb and Siege of Golcoṇḍā.

it completely[1]. Śivājī died in 1680. His son Sambhājī succeeded him. Soon after his accession, early in 1681 Sambhājī's generals invaded Berār. They then moved with 20,000 troops towards Burhāṇpūr attacked and sacked it. The Marāṭhās kept up a continuous pressure on Khāndeś and Berār. In 1684 they attacked Dharaṇgāṅv in Khāndeś. Sambhājī was captured and executed in 1689 by Auraṅgzeb His son Śāhū was made a prisoner. Sambhājī's brother, Rājārām and his able commandants Santājī, Dhanājī, Parasojī and Nemājī made relentless attacks against the Moghals. Auraṅgzeb was forced to deploy his best officers as *subhedārs* in the provinces of Khāndeś and Berār[2], and renowned Moghal generals like Zulfikar Khān and Ghāzī-ud-din Firoz Jaṅg were continuously striving to contain the Marāṭhā activities in the Deccan. After the fall of Jiñjī in the South in 1698, Rājāram returned to the *Svarājya* territory and reached Viśālgaḍ in February 1698. Meanwhile Bakht Buland, the Goṇḍ Rājā of Devgaḍ was carrying on struggle against the Moghals. Rājārām's generals, Nemājī Śinde and Parasojī Bhosle, were successfully ravaging Khāndeś and Berār exacting *cauth* from the Imperial territory. In 1699 Rājārām himself planned an invasion of Berār. This was checked by the Moghals under prince Bedārbakht and Zulfikār Khān. Rājārām returned to Siṅhgaḍ where he died on 2nd March 1700. The death of Rājārām brought about no lull in the fighting between the Marāṭhās and the Moghals. The Marāṭhās, under the able leadership of Tārābāī (widow of Rājārām), Rāmcandrapant Amātya, Śaṅkarājī Nārāyaṇ. Dhanājī Jādhav and others, continued the struggle vigorously. They ravaged Moghal territory in Māḷvā and Gujarāt. In 1703 Berār was again raided when Śārzā Khān, the Deputy Governor of Berār was captured by Nemajī Śinde. The struggle continued till the death of Auraṅgzeb on February 20, 1707.

At the time of Auraṅgzeb's death Ghāzī-ud-din Firoz Jaṅg was the governor of Berār.

Accession of Bahādur Śāh.

On 20th February 1707 Auraṅgzeb died at Ahmadnagar and was shortly afterwards buried at Rauzā afterwards called Khuldābād, near the caves of Ellorā and about seven miles from Daulatābād. The usual conflict for the throne followed the death of the emperor and victory finally declared for Śāh Ālam, the eldest surviving son, who ascended the throne under the title of Bahādur Śāh. Firoz Jaṅg at first held Berār for prince Muhammad Azam by whom he was transferred, as *subhedār*, to the province of Gujarāt, but the cautious *amir* was a lukewarm

[1] Sarkar, *Shivaji*, p. 178.

[2] The following Moghal officers administered Berar as *subhedars* from 1675 till the death of Aurangzeb in 1707. Khan Zaman was appointed *subhedar* in December 1675. He was succeeded by Irij Khan who died on 13th August 1685. In August 1686 Hasan Khan was appointed *subhedar*. He was succeeded by Mahabat Khan (appointed in September 1686) and prince Kam Baksh (appointed on 26th September 1686) and again on 24th December 1697). In 1698 Askar Ali Khan was appointed *subhedar*. He was succeeded by the leading Moghal General Firoz Jang.

partisan and readily made his peace with Bahādur Śāh who confirmed him in his appointment in Gujarāt.

Accession of Bahādur Śāh.

Towards the end of 1707 Zulfikār Khān Nusrat Jaṅg was viceroy of the whole of the Deccan, and it was now that the officers of the imperial army first began to enter into regular agreements with the Marāṭhās for the payment of *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī*. It may here be mentioned that after the capture of Sambhājī in 1689, Rāyagaḍ fort, the capital of the Marāṭhās, fell to the Moghals. Śāhū, the son of Sambhājī along with his mother Yesubāī, was made a prisoner. He remained with Auraṅgzeb till the latter's death in 1707.

Parasojī Bhosle 1699—1709.

Śāhū was allowed to go back to the Deccan from the imperial camp[1] in 1707. Parasojī Bhosle hastened to West Khāndeś with his army to join Śāhū, whereupon Śāhū, along with other prominent Marāṭhā chiefs crossed the Godāvarī and reached Sātārā. Tārābāī, widow of Rājārām however, not desiring to acclaim Śāhū, had won over Paraśurām Pratinidhi and Bāpūjī, elder brother of Parasojī, to her side. Tārābāi, under the pretence of ascertaining whether Śāhū was real, sent Bāpūjī who was the eldest person known in the Bhosle House, to Śāhū's camp. But Bāpūjī not only joined Śāhū's forces but partook food in the same dish with Śāhū and convinced all other Marāṭhā chiefs of his blood royal, who now readily joined his standard. Śāhū in appreciation of Parasojī's services to his cause, granted him *Sanad* for Gāvil, Narnāḷā, Māhūr, Kheḍale, Pavnār and Kaḷaṁb, and declared him "*Senā Sāheb Subhā*" in 1707[2]. Parasojī collected tributes from Berār but in 1709, on his return from Sātārā, died at Kheḍ near Wāī.

Accession of Farrukhsiyār.

Bahādur Śāh died in 1712 and was succeeded by his eldest son, Muizuddin who took the title of Jahāndār Śāh. On his death the two Sayyad brothers of Bārhā, who were now all-powerful at Delhi, raised to the throne Farrukhsiyār. It was in his reign, in 1719, that the imperial court formally acknowledged the claim of the Marāṭhās to *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī*. In consideration for refraining from ravaging Berār and the other five *Subhās* of the Deccan they were allowed to collect one-quarter of the revenue under the name of *cauth* and in addition to this a further proportion of one-tenth under the name of *sardeśmukhī*, which was regarded as a recompense for the trouble and expense of collecting the *cauth*. It was the imperial recognition of these claims which laid the foundation of that system of government known as *do-amli*.

Plots of the Sayyads and accession of Muhammad Śāh.

It is not necessary to follow in detail the course of the intrigues of the Sayyad brothers at Delhi. After deposing Farrukhsiyār and setting up two nonentities to succeed him, they raised to the throne in 1719 Rauśan Akhtar, who took the title of Muhammad Śāh. In 1720 they hatched a plot against Asaf Jāh Nizām-ul-Mulk, son of Ghāzī-ud-din Firoz Jaṅg; and sent him as

[1] From the river Narmadā.

[2] Y. M. Kale, *History of the Nagpur Province*, p. 47,

subhedār to Māḷvā in the hope that he would either be disgraced in the vain attempt to quell the disturbances which they fomented against him or would rebel. To their disappointment he was joined by all the men of importance in Māḷvā and also by his uncle Ivaz Khān, *subhedār* of Berār. Ālam Alī Khān, the nephew of the Sayyads, who was viceroy of the Deccan, now appointed Anvar Khān *subhedār* of Berār but he too joined Āsaf Jāh. The plot of the Sayyads failed. Āsaf Jāh met their nephew, Ālam Alī Khān, at Bāḷāpūr on 31st July, 1720 and there defeated and slew him. He then returned to Delhi and was appointed *subhedār* of Gujarāt while his son Ghāzī ud-din Khān Firoz Jang was appointed to Māḷvā.

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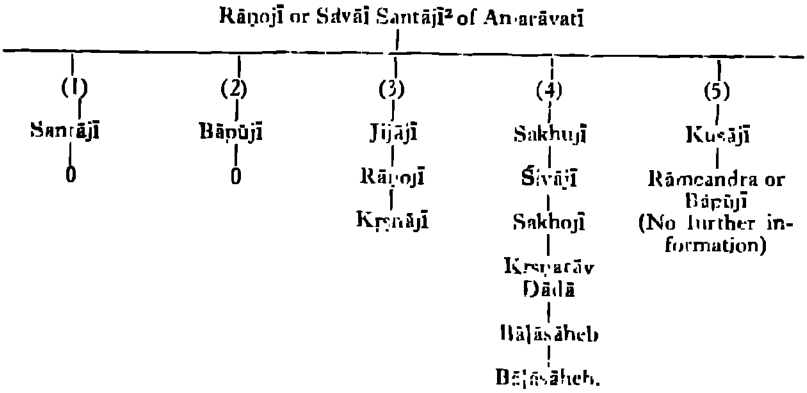
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Moghals.

Plots of the Sayyads and accession of Muhammad Śāh.

The Nizāms.

Śāhū granted a *sanad* to Rāṇojī (Savāī Santājī) on 9th October 1722 for Amarāvatī in Berār. Thereafter Śāhū gave further grants to this Bhosle house of Amarāvatī for Taḷegānv near Nāgpūr, Giroli, Arvi, Nachanad, Kurhe, Pahur, Virul, Firad, Kelzar. After the death of Sābājī, his *jahāgir* rights* came to his wife Raman but after her death[1], these rights were also transferred to Rāṇojī of Amarāvatī:



Śāhū had given in *jahagir* to Rāṇojī forty-three villages; and he administered this territory, along with the twenty-seven *mahāls* granted to him by Raghujī Bhosle of Nāgpūr, later on, from his headquarters Amarāvatī[3] In 1722 the Nizām received news that his province of Gujarāt and his son's province of Māḷvā were overrun by the Marāṭhās, and he therefore obtained permission to leave Delhi for the purpose of expelling the intruders. While he was setting the affairs of Maḷvā in order, he learnt that Mubāriz Khān, the *subhedār* of Hyderābad, whom he had believed to be devoted to his interests, had been bribed by the Sayyads with the promise of the viceroyalty of the Deccan to take up arms against him and was even then marching to meet him.

* For Kumather, Marali, Puse.

[1] In 1757.

[2] Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas, Appendix I*, p. 546.

[3] *Ibid*, p. 548.

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Asaf Jāh obtains the viceroyalty of the Deccan.

He therefore set out for the Deccan to meet Mubāriz Khān, whom he defeated and slew at Sākarkheḍā[1] in the Bulḍhāṇā district on 1st October, 1724. The date is an important one in the history of Berār and the Deccan; for the battle of Sākarkheḍā established the virtual independence of the Deccan under the Nizām of Hyderābād. Neither Cin Kilic Khān Nizām-ul-Mulk nor any of his successors at Hyderābād ever assumed the style of independent sovereigns, but they settled questions of succession among themselves, made all appointments in the six *subhās* of the Deccan and behaved in all respects as independent rulers with the exception that their coin bore the name of the reigning emperor and that the imperial recognition of each succession was purchased by large presents and professions of subservience. Shortly after, if not before, the death of Āsaf Jāh the Bhosle Rājās of Nāgpūr were recognised as *mokāsādārs* or assignees of the Marāṭhās' share of the revenues of Berār, and they maintained their collecting officers in the province under the *do-amli* system until the conclusion of the second Marāṭhā war in 1803.

Kānhojī Bhosle.

Kānhojī not only established firmly the Marāṭhā power in Berār and Goṇḍvana but also laid the foundation of its future in Orissā. His headquarters being at Bhām, the Bhosles are referred to even up to the treaty of 1803 with the English, as the Rājās of Berār. However, the relations of Kānhojī with Śāhū were no more cordial. Kānhojī had looked after Raghujī, the son of Bimbājī, his cousin, but now by the blessings of the Saint Rāmājīpant of Pāṇḍavgaḍ near Waī, he had a son, Rāyājī and his attention to Raghujī was no more undivided. Raghujī. leaving Kānhojī had joined Śāhū and had even once saved the life of Śāhū when he was attacked by a ferocious tiger. Śāhū gave the daughter of Śirke, the sister of his wife Saguṇābāī to Raghujī in marriage. Kānhojī's rule, again according to the contemporary reports seems to be oppressive.

Rāṇojī, after his return from Delhi, joining with Raghujī, demanded their share of the hereditary rights in Bhosle principality, Śāhū, first through the good offices of Bāḷājī Viśvanāth, and later, himself tried to conciliate them. Raghujī and Rāṇojī were asked to serve under Kānhojī which they refused to do. However, Kānhojī and Fatehsingh Bhosle had accompanied Bājīrāv and Raghujī Bhosle on their Karnaṭak expedition during 1725—1727.

Kānhojī had constantly failed to submit accounts of *jahāgīr* to Śāhū and evaded revenue payments to the Marāṭhā State exchequer. Sensing the trouble, Kānhojī left Sarārā, in a hurry without taking Śāhū's permission. Kānhojī left for Kumṭhā on 23-8-1725 in the afternoon and next day, reached Tāsgāṅv via Kanherkhed and Puseśāvali. Śāhū despatched two prominent Marāṭhā chiefs to pursue Kānhojī, and not being satisfied with this arrangement himself. in the early hours of the morning,

[1] Renamed Fatehkherda by Asaf Jah to commemorate his victory.

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Kānhojī Bhosle.

set out with Yamājī Śivdev. Śāhū, however, returned from Vaḍgāṅv being persuaded to do so by Yamājī Śivdev, who took the responsibility to bring Kānhojī to bay. Āvajī Kavaḍe, Bājīrāv's *sardār* in Berār and all the Marāṭhā chiefs on Kānhojī's road to Berār were instructed instantly by Śāhū to arrest Kānhojī wherever possible.

Kānhojī, however, joined the Nizām, evading all the vigilance of the Marāṭhās. Śāhū remonstrated to the Nizām strongly, declaring that the Nizām had broken the earlier treaty with the Marāṭhās, by giving refuge to Kānhojī and it appears that the Nizām refused to give quarters to Kānhojī. Finally through the good counsel of Yesājī Siddheśvar, Śāhū and Kānhojī were brought on friendly terms, but even these proved to be short-lived.

Kānhojī-Raghujī relations.

Śāhū despatched Raghujī Bhosle against Kānhojī and gave Devur in *jahāgīr* to Raghujī anticipating his good services[1]. Govindrāv Ciṭnīs, Fatehsingh Bhosle and Śripatrāv Pratinidhi had helped Raghujī's cause, from the very beginning. Raghujī was explicitly asked not to repeat Kānhojī's insolence and to pay regular tribute to the Marāṭhā State. Konhererām Kolhaṭkar paid one lakh rupees to Śāhū towards guarantee for Raghujī's loyal conduct. Konhererām demanded in return the office of *Śikkenavis*, which was granted by Raghujī. Anant Bhaṭ Citaḷe was appointed by Śāhū, in charge of the audits of Raghujī's *jahāgīr*. Raghujī was given the title of *Senā Sāheb Subhā* by Śāhū on this occasion.

Raghujī enters Berār.

Raghujī, setting out to meet Kānhojī, was obstructed near Jalnā by Samśer Bahadar Santājī Āṭoḷe, but Dinkar Vināyak and Śivājī Vināyak from Raghujī's camp, finding one Yeśvantrāv Pilājī, their relation in Santājī's camp, conciliated matters, averting a clash and Raghujī advanced further. Raghujī started collecting *cauth* and *sardeśmukhī* in Berār, in the name of Śāhū. He entered Berār through Lakhanvāḍā *ghāṭ* and from Bāḷāpūr, divided his army of 30,000 horse, despatching sections in all directions of Berār. He defeated Sujayat Khān, the deputy of Navāb of Ellicpūr in the neighbourhood of Ellicpūr punishing him for his oppressive rule over the Brāhmaṇs there. Having established himself firmly in Berār, Raghujī now turned towards Kānhojī. Kānhojī, too had prepared himself for adequate defence by fortifying Bhām thoroughly. Raghujī set out from Bāḷāpūr, reached Amarāvatī and further marched to Taḷegāṇv. Kānhojī meanwhile was negotiating with the Nizām through Hirjullā Khān, *subhedār* of Māhūr. Vāsudev Pant, his *vakil*, had been sent to Auraṅgābād for this purpose. Raghujī and his uncle Rāṇojī laid siege to the fort of Bhām. Kānhojī's *sardār*, Tukojī Gujar was killed in action. However, Kānhoji escaped to Māhūr pursued hotly by Raghujī and Rāṇojī. Both the armies

[1] The actual *sanad* is dated, 22nd November 1731, but Raghuji was to leave his family here and to march ahead. The Bhosles were called hereditary Rajas of Devur on this account. Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas*, p. 60.

met near Waṇī at Mandor and Kānhojī submitted[1]. Raghujī took him to Śāhū who put him in custody at Sātārā where he died subsequently[2]. Raghujī's army was stationed at Rājur for six more years. It was probably at this time that the fortresses of Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā, which were held by the Bhosles, except for a short period, until the end of the third Marāṭhā war, passed into his possession.

Rāṇojī Bhosle 1728—1748.

Bājīrāv despatched Cimājī Āppā to Māḷvā, but before Cimājī's army had reached Māḷvā, Pilājī Jādhav, Rāṇojī Bhosle, Kṛṣṇajī Harī, Keśo Mahādev, accompanied by Raghuji Bhosle had invaded Māḷvā. But Girdhar and Gayābahādur could not be surrounded, owing to the internal dissensions in the Marāṭhā camp, and it was only when Cimājī Āppā came on the scene that both Girdhar and Gayābahādur were killed in action and that Māḷvā came under the Marāṭhā control. Rāṇoji was in Cimājī's camp throughout the campaign. When later Bājīrāv marched to Bundelkhaṇḍ, Cimājī and Rāṇojī joined him with their armies.

After Kānhojī's death, his son, Rāyājī had his headquarters at Bhām, but was attacked there by Raghujī in 1739. Their dispute, however, was settled by Bāḷajī Bājirāv, the third Peśvā on 15th November 1748. Rayājī and Rāṇojī had further misgivings about their *Sarañjām* with Raghujī Bhosle, and certain *mokāsās* even of the Peśvā could not escape the ravishing strides of Rāyājī's army. However, Rāyaji died leaving no heir and Raghujī Bhosle was granted the *sanad* by Śāhū for establishing Marāṭhā rule in Lucknow, Makasudābād, Bidar, Bengal, Bitia, Bundelkhaṇḍ, Allāhābād, Hajipūr (Paṭnā) and Devagaḍ, Gaḍha, Bhavargaḍ, Cāndā were ceded out to him for his *cauth* and *mokāsā* rights[3].

Disputes regarding the succession in Hyderābād.

On 21st May 1748, Āsaf Jāh died on the bank of the Tāpī river on his way from Burhānpūr to Daulatābād, and was succeeded in the Deccan by his son Nāsir Jaṅg. In 1750 Nāsir Jaṅg was succeeded by his brother Sa'ābat Jaṅg, who, on the death of Sayyad Śarif Khan Sujat Jaṅg in June, 1752, appointed Sayyad Laṣkar Khān to the vacant appointment of *subhedār* of Berār. In the same year Gāzī-ud-din Khan, the eldest son of Āsaf Jah, having been appointed by the emperor Ahmad Śāh viceroy of the Deccan, advanced as far as Auraṅgābad to secure his heritage, but in Aurangābād he died suddenly from cholera according to one account, but according to another from poison administered by or at the instance of Salābat Jaṅg's mother. Salābat Jaṅg spent the rainy season of 1753 in Auraṅgābad where Sayyad Laṣkar Khān, *subhedār* of Berar, who had now received the title of Ruka-ud-daulā was appointed *vazir* of the Deccan,

[1] When Kanhoji was surrounded on all sides by Raghuji's army, Raghuji, giving him the due respect, requested him to sit in the palanquin, but Kanhoji, being very hot tempered abused Raghuji, with the result that Raghuji finally had to put him under guard.

[2] Shahu, however, had also brought Kanhoji's family to Satara in 1734, and had given explicit instructions to all that Kanhoji's children must not be harassed in the streets of Satara. Kale, *op. cit*, p. 64.

[3] Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas*, p. 76.

Disputes regarding the succession in Hyderābād.

which appointment he resigned after a few months, leaving the finances of the State in a deplorable condition. Gāzī-ud-din Khān, in order to attach the Marāṭhās to his cause, had assigned to them the revenue of all the northern districts of the Deccan and Raghujī Bhosle, on the pretext of Gāzī-ud-din's promise, had collected and retained the whole of the revenue of Berār. One of the first acts of Samsām-ud-daulā, who had succeeded Rukn-ud-daulā as minister, was to send against Raghujī an army which succeeded in forcing him to disgorge five lakhs of rupees, an utterly inadequate share of his plunder. On 14th February 1755 Raghujī Bhosle died and Rukn-ud-daulā returned to Berār as *subhedār*. He was displaced in 1756 in favour of Mir Nizām Alī, the brother of Salabat Jaṅg, who on his appointment as *subhedār* of Berār received the title of Nizām-ud-daulā Nizām-ud-daulā now marched into Berar, where his presence was required and encamped at Ellicpūr.

Jānojī Bhosle.

Raghujī, on his death, left behind four sons — Jānojī, Mudhojī, Bimbajī, and Sābājī. Janojī, being the eldest, claimed the *Senā Sāheb Subhāship*. However, Mudhojī who had been to Gāvilgaḍ, hearing the news of Raghuji's death, hastened to Nāgpur to ascertain his own claim, as he was Raghujī's son by his elder wife. Jānojī preparing himself, despatched Jayājī to capture Gāvilgaḍ. Meeting Mudhojī on the way, Jayājī pretended himself a friend of Mudhojī and secured the office of *killedār* (fort-keeper) of Gavilgaḍ from Mudhojī. Jayajī immediately informed Jānojī that Gāvilgaḍ was in his possession. Mudhojī, however, exacted tributes from Berār and was well supported by Sadāśiv Hari and the *Deśmukh* of Paroḷe. Moreover, Dinkar Vināyak Prabhu, Śivājī Vināyak Prabhu and Narsiṅgrāv Bhavānī had joined Mudhojī with their armies But Jānojī was supported by Baburāv Konher Kolhatkar (*Mujamdar*), Rakhmājī Gaṇeś Citnavis, Trimbakjī Rāje Bhosle Kṛṣṇājī Govind, the Marāṭhā *Subhedar* of Berār. Naibar Ballāḷ (Risbud) and Śivāhu Sāṭhe, the Marāṭhā *Subhedar* of Cuttak. All the elderly nobility including Raghuji Karāṇde, Bimbaji Wāñjāl, Nānhojī Jācak, Śivājī Keśav Talkuṭe, Girmājī Khaṇḍerav, Anandrāv Wāgh, Kṛṣṇājī Āṭole, too, supported Janoji At last Trimbakjī Rāje Bhosle and Baburāv Konher, reaching Poona, paid Rs 2½ lakhs to the Peśvā as Bhosle's tribute to the Marāṭha State and secured the office of *Sena Sāheb Subha* for Jānojī.

The Bhosle armies clashed twice or three times in Berār but the Peśvā reconciled the two, declaring Mudhojī *Senadhurandhar*. The new *jahāgīr* in Candrapūr and Chattisgaḍ were respectively granted by the Peśvā to Mudhojī and Bimbaji in 1757.* Sābājī was at his headquarters at Daravhe in Berār. The Gond king of Candrapūr, taking advantage of the dissensions in the Bhosle house, had taken possession of the fort of Candrapūr. Hence Mudhojī, setting out from Ellicpūr, captured the Candrapūr fort.

* The official *Sanad* was granted, however, by Tarabai on 6th August 1761 when Madhavrav was the Peshva.

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Jānojī's relations with the Nizām 1757-1758.

While Nizām-ud-daulā was halting at Ellicpūr, Raghujī Karāṇḍe, Bhosle's lieutenant, invaded Berār and advanced as far as Borgānv where Nizām-ud-daulā met and defeated him. However, Raghujī Karāṇḍe and Nānhojī Jācak had looted the Nizām's artillery baggage in December 1757. Nizām-ud-daulā looted the city of Akolā but the *Navāb* of Ellicpūr reconciled the two in May 1758, whereby both agreed to the *Sāṭhīcālīsī* treaty. The treaty stipulated that 45 per cent of the tribute would go to the Bhosles and the remaining 55 per cent would be allotted to the Nizām. The visits were exchanged in a royal *darbār* on the banks of the Wardhā on 25th March 1758. The treaty of peace which was concluded was not, however, sufficiently stringent in its terms to prevent the Marāṭhās from continuing their depredations in Berār.

The Battle of Nāndgānv-Rahāṭgānv 1759.

Jānojī and Mudhojī had both agreed to pay ten lakhs of rupees to the Peśvā each. However, they experienced great difficulties in collecting the tribute due to dissensions everywhere. Kṛṣṇājī Govind had been collecting Berār tribute, as deputy of Kāśirāv Bhāskarrām but he was removed from the office and instead Jānojī now appointed Mānsingrāv Mohite. The Peśvā sent his *vakīls*, Vyaṅkaṭrāv Moreśvar and Trimbakjī Bhosle for recovery but to no avail. Negotiations were opened between the two brothers in October 1759. Mudhojī insisted that Jānojī would stay in Nāgpūr, leaving all management to him; while Jānojī pleaded for division of territory and parallel management. Moro Raghunāth, Raghujī Karāṇḍe and Bāḷājī Keśav exchanged visits but no compromise could be effected. *Dasarā*, being fixed for the two brothers to meet in ceremony, Mudhojī and Karāṇḍe sensed a plot against them and escaped to Berār.

Jānojī sent Trimbakjī Rāje to reconcile Mudhojī, but Mudhojī and Karāṇḍe pointed out that as long as Devājipant, Bāḷājī Keśav and Śāmjī Fulājī were in the services of Jānojī, they would always advise against any permanent reconciliation and that they must be driven out from the court of Nāgpūr. Jānojī agreed to hand over Devājipant to Pirājī Nāik Nimbāḷkar but insisted that Mudhojī must terminate the services of Sadāśiv Hari, Rāmājī Keśav and Nānājī Kṛṣṇa. Negotiations again failed and Mudhojī collected five and half thousand horse. Jānojī intending not to allow sufficient time for Mudhojī to increase his military strength, set out on the *Divāḷī* day for Berār. The two armies met in battle near Amarāvatī at Rahāṭgānv, and Mudhojī was completely defeated[1]. Mudhojī's *Faḍnis*, Moropant, was captured by Jānoji. However, Raghujī Karāṇḍe, collecting his army afresh, released Moropant. Mudhojī, hotly pursued by Jānojī escaped towards Karañjā. In the meanwhile, Udepur Gosāvī of Sātārā, on behalf of the

[1] A trick was played in the high hour of the battle on Mudhoji's army. A horse exactly like the one Raghuji Karande always used, was let loose unbriddled and it gave the impression that Raghuji Karande fell in action. Mudhoji's army became panicky and was defeated. Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas*, p. 126.

The Battle of Nāndgāṅv-Rahāṭgāṅv 1759.

Peśvā, collected tribute from Berār. Peśvā's *vakil* Vyaṅkaṭrāv Moreśvar tried to reconcile the two brothers and finally it was agreed that Mudhojī would look after the Nāgpūr affairs and Raghujī Karāṇḍe, Trimbakjī Rāje and Pirājī Nāik Nimbāḷkar would see that all crisis would be averted. On 9th January 1760, both the brothers wrote to Sadāśivrāv Bhāu that their affairs were amicably settled. Jānojī and Mudhojī arrived at Vāśim on the banks of Peṇagaṅgā as Sadāśivrāv Bhāu had reached Paiṭhaṇ after his successful battle at Udgīr[1] against the Nizām. Bāḷājī Bājīrāv himself was near Ahmadnagar. Jānojī, taking Raghuji Karāṇde[2] with him advanced to Nandasi Brāhmaṇī and reached Jogāī Ambā (Ambejogāī), with 12,000 horse and next day joined Sadāśivrāv Bhāu's army. Mudhojī, too by a different route, at the same time reached Sadāśivrāv's camp. Sadāśivrāv, Rāghobā and Bāḷājī met near Ambe and Patdur and received the news of the crushing defeat and death of Dattājī Śinde[3] in the north. It was at once decided that a force must be despatched under a member of the Peśvā's family to restore Marāṭhā influence in Hindustān. Little love was lost between the two cousins, Raghunāth and Sadāśivrāv and the hero of Udgīr claimed the command of the Marāṭhā army. The army which set out from Patdur on 10th March 1760 was the most magnificent that the Marāṭhās had ever sent forth to battle. Raghunāth however remained behind to check the Nizām and Jānojī and Mudhojī, too returned to Nāgpūr. In 1761 was fought the battle of Pānipat between the Marāṭhās and Abdālī in which the Marāṭhās were defeated.

Accession of Nizām Alī.

In 1762 Nizām-ud-daulā, who had already received the titles of Āsaf Jāh and Nizām-ul-Mulk, deposed his brother and became ruler of the Hyderābād State. In 1763 he appointed Gulām Sayyad Khān governor of Berār, but removed him in 1764 to Daulatābād and replaced him in Berar by Ismāil Khān. the Afghān.

The Civil War.

Now Zafar-ud-daulā, who had been engaged in suppressing rebellion in Nirmal and had pursued some of the rebels into Berār, conceived the idea that Ismāil Khān was harbouring them. He wrote to him accusing him of treason and Ismāil sent an indignant reply. The correspondence between the two *amīrs* became so acrimonious that Ismāil, as a precautionary measure, strengthened the fortifications of Ellicpūr, whereupon Zafar-ud-daulā, Nizām Alī's minister, charged that the governor of Berār was meditating rebellion and asked for permission to march against him. Rukn-ud-daulā, who did not doubt Ismāil's fidelity and was loth to see the resources of the State frittered away in civil war, returned no reply to this request,

[1] This battle was fought on 3rd February 1760, at Udgir, 200 miles east of Poona. Haig, IV, pp. 390, 412.

[2] Mudhoji was completely alienated from Divakarpant and Balaji Keshav. Mudhoji and now Trimbak Raje insisted that both of them should be arrested and kept, one in Devagad fort and the other in Ambegad fort whereupon they pleaded to the Peshva for their safety.

[3] On 9th January 1760, at the Berar Ghat, ten miles north of Delhi, Ahmad Shah Abdali defeated and slew Dattaji Shinde.

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and Zafar-ud-daulā, either taking his silence for consent or affecting to believe that the urgency of the case was sufficient to justify him in acting on his own responsibility, invaded Berār and in June besieged Ismāil in Ellicpūr. On hearing that the conflict which he had tried to prevent had broken out Rukn-ud daulā hastened to Ellicpūr and patched up a temporary peace between the two disputants.

The situation after the battle of Pānipat became one of the greatest dangers to the Marāṭhā State. The combined armies of Jānojī and Nizām Alī moved along the Bhimā ravaging the Peśvā Mādhavrāv's territory. When the Marāṭhās entered the Bhosle's possessions in Berār, Nizām Alī came on their heels. Pooṇā shared a dreadful fate, a major portion of it being completely burned down. Secret negotiations were opened and Sakhārām Bāpū won over Jānojī to the Peśvā's side. On 10th August 1763 the Peśvā defeated the Nizām at Rākṣasbhuvan. Ismāil Khān of Ellicpūr was wounded but Jānojī, being true to his earlier friendship, had brought him to his camp. The Nizām gave to the Peśvā territory worth 82 lakhs of rupees, out of which the Peśvā handed over 32 lakhs of rupees worth territory to Jānojī. However, when Mādhavrāv sent Vyankaṭrav Moreśvar and Gaṇeś Tukdev to Janojī to solicit his help for his Karnāṭak expedition, Jānojī refused to accompany him. Moro Dhoṇḍojī, the Nizām's *sardār* in Berār, with his army of 2,000 horse, was attacked by Bhosle's army. Hence the Peśvā and the Nizām decided to attack the Bhosle's territory. Mādhavrāv set out from Pooṇā on 17th October 1765 and was joined by Rukn-ud-daula near Kaigāṅv Ṭoke. Raghunāth too joined Mādhavrāv in December 1765 and the Peśvā's army reached Daryāpūr. Śivbhaṭ Sāṭhe, Gopālrāv Sambhājī Khāṇḍekar, Kṛṣṇājī Anant Tāmbe collected, on behalf of the Peśvā, tribute from all directions, marching further in Berār. The Ellicpūr army of 3,000 horse under Ismāil went to support Jānojī. But being not able to face the might of the Peśvā himself Jānojī sent from Nāndgāṅv, Vyankaṭeś Moreśvar the Peśvā's *vakil* in his camp for a truce to Mādhavrāv. However, Mādhavrāv was reluctant to fight with his own *sardār* and reconciled matters with the Bhosles. The treaty was signed at Kholāpūr, near Amarāvatī, which stipulated that Jānojī would return 24 lakhs of rupees worth territory to the Peśvā, out of the 32 lakhs ceded to the Bhosle at Rākṣasbhuvan, retaining only eight lakhs to himself. Out of this 24 lakhs rupees territory, the Peśvā returned 15 lakhs to the Nizām, as agreed between them before the expedition against Jānojī was opened. The Nizām and Rukn-ud-daulā, along with Śerjaṅg and Jagannāth Dhoṇḍojī, brother of Moro Dhoṇḍojī, took control of this territory after the official meeting of the Nizām and the Peśvā on 23rd January 1766 at Kumarkheḍā.

The Peśvā attacks Berār. January—June 1769.

Jānojī, however, succumbed to the wicked advice of his minister Devājīpant and coquetted with the Peśvā's enemy. Mādhavrāv, after disposing of his uncle at the battle of Dhoḍap

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The Peśvā attacks Berār. January—June 1769

in June 1768, decided to teach a severe lesson to Jānojī. Mādhavrāv sent for the Nāgpūr minister Devājīpant for a personal visit at Poonā. The latter refused to obey the summons. When his stern warning fell on deaf ears, the Peśvā at once opened hostilities. Devājīpant realizing the peril he was running into, came to meet the Peśvā at Vāśīm in Berār. He was at once put under arrest. Gopālrāv Patvardhan and Rāmcandra Gaṇeś Kānaḍe were ordered by the Peśvā to fall upon Nāgpūr and ravage the Bhosle's territory. Rukn-ud-daulā and Rāmcandra Jādhav with 8,000 horse were despatched by the Nizām to the Peśvā's help. Thus reinforced, the Peśva began aggressive movements with his 60,000 horse, marching through Solāpur, Tuljāpur, Dhārur, Pāthrī, Bīd, Nandasi Brahmaṇi, Kalamnuri, Vaśīm, Mangrulpir, Pinjar, Karañja, Amarāvati. The Bhosles• removed their family to Gāvilgaḍ and Narhar Ballāḷ with his 5,000 horse protected the fort. Bāpū Karāṇḍe marched to Burhāṇpūr but was obstructed by the Peśvā's officers there. Anandrāv Gopāḷ and Baḷājī Keśav Sapre defeated Bāpū Karāṇḍe and Narhari Pant near Akolā at Pañcagavāṇ on 10th January 1769. Narhar was killed in action. His nephew, Viṭṭhal Ballāḷ, with 2,500 horse devastated the territory, marched to Burhāṇpūr and returned to Malkāpur, to effect junction with Jācak and Karaṇḍe. However, Viṭṭhal was severely wounded and his family was put under arrest by the Peśvā's agent at Burhāṇpūr. Jānojī's camp was at Nāndgāṅv, near Amarāvatī with 15 to 20 thousand horse. Pirājī Nimbāḷkar effected junction here on 6th December 1768 with Jānojī. Five thousand horse of the Bhosle army was at Narnaḷa under Tuḷajī. Tuḷājī being sick in body, his nephew took this band and joined Janojī and Pirājī on 17th December 1768. However, Ismāil Khān of Ellicpūr refused to join the Bhosles. On 1st December 1768, the Peśvā had halted at Badner Gangāī and the Bhosle camp was in front, 25 *cos* but on the 10th, the distance separating the two was still less, as the Bhosles had on 11th their camp at Nāndgāṅv, near Amarāvati. Devājīpant however opened negotiations and offered fifteen lakhs of rupees to the Peśvā. Acting on the advice of Devajīpant, Jānojī, being unable to meet the Pesva's strength, adopted guerilla tactics and gave out that he would march upon Poonā, liberate Raghunath and instal him in the Peśvā's seat. For three or four days during February Poonā was in a great alarm and confusion. The Peśvā had already plundered Nāgpūr on 11th January 1769. In March, Jānojī's brother, Mudhojī joined the Peśvā. However the exhaustion of both the parties induced them to seek a termination of their hostilities by coming to a mutual accommodation. A treaty of mutual friendship was ratified at Kanakapur or Brahmeśvar, at the confluence of the two rivers, the Godāvarī and the Mañjrā, on 23rd March 1769. The Bhosles agreed not to increase the prescribed number of their army and to pay a tribute of 5 lakhs yearly in five instalments. Mādhavrāv Peśvā died on 18th November 1772 and Janojī Bhosle too had died in the same year in May. The death of Janojī gave

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rise to the usual succession disputes and a civil war ensued between the two brothers Mudhojī and Sābājī. The former was supported by Raghunāth and Sakhārām Bāpū from Pooṇā, and the latter by Nārāyaṇrāv, Nānā Phaḍṇis and others.

The Battle of Kumbhārī. January 1773.

Mudhojī with his three sons, Raghujī, Khaṇḍojī and Vyaṅkojī was well supported by Baḷavantrāv Mahipatrāv, Rāmājī Keśāv, Tikhe, Bhavānī Aṭoḷe, Govindrāv Muguṭrāv, Śivājī Tāḷkuṭe and Jagdev Gujar. Sābājī had in entourage Khaṇḍojī Āḍhāv from Berār and Śaṅkarājī Ghorpaḍe, Rāmasingh Nimbāḷkar and Zuñjārrāv Ghāṭge. The Peśvā sent Bāḷājī Pāḷande to reinforce Sābājī. The two armies met in battle in January 1773, at Kumbhari near Akolā. Jivājī Bhosle, son of Rāṇojī Bhosle of Amarāvati, died in action. Fighting was stopped for two days in mourning and thereafter, through the mediation of Rāmajī Ballāḷ this fratricidal war came to be temporarily composed and an agreement was arrived at, by which Mudhojī's son Raghujī was to be recognised as the ruler of Nāgpūr. But Mudhojī very soon released Devājīpant and made him his *Divān* and put under arrest Lakṣmaṇrāv, brother of Bhavānī Munśī with his family, which induced Sābājī to leave Nāgpūr and collect fresh army. Sābājī on 23rd April, 1773 and again on 5th June wrote to Ananthhaṭ Citaḷe to hand over the charge of Amarāvati to Rāṇojī son of Jivājī as it was his hereditary *jahāgīr*. Sābājī was also reinforced by the Nizām's *Divān*, Rukn-ud-daulā and Khaṇḍerāv Darekar, the Peśvā's *sarlaṣkar*.

Siege of Ellicpūr. August 1773.

Rukn-ud-daulā and Sābājī besieged Ellicpūr as Ismāil was supporting Mudhojī. Mudhojī hastened to Ellicpur but finding that Rukn-ud-daulā and Sābājī commanded greater numbers, followed lingering tactics. Zamasingh, the fort-keeper of Gāvilgaḍ, too, in the interest of Mudhojī, surprised Sābājī's camp, many times. Ismāil, once, leaving the fort, dispersed the besiegers. Khaṇḍerāv Darekar, however could not reach Ellicpūr as he was stopped by the army sent from Cāndā by Mudhojī. Mudhojī also instructed Vyaṅkaṭrav Kāśī and his brother Lakṣmaṇrāv Kāśī at Pooṇā to support Raghunāth against Nārāyaṇrāv Peśvā. One dark night in August, Raghunāthrāv tried to escape with the help of Lakṣmaṇ Kāśī. He was defeated by the guards and taken back to his custody. The murder of Peśvā Nārāyaṇrāv took place on 30th August shortly after midday. Vyaṅkaṭrāv and Lakṣmaṇrāv had an agreement with Raghunāth-rāv on 4th September 1773 that Mudhojī and not Sābājī would be recognised as chief of Nāgpūr Bhosles. Mudhojī had reconciled Rukn-ud-daulā through the mediations of Mahipat Dinkar and Bāḷkṛṣṇa Bhaṭ Paṭvardhan. Not only Ismāil and Rukn-ud-daulā were reconciled, Sābājī and Mudhojī, too brushed up their differences. Mudhojī, after hearing the news of Nārāyaṇrāv's murder went to Gāvilgaḍ and consulted Daryābāī, wife of Raghujī I. Lakṣmaṇ Kāśī had gone to Ellicpūr to take Mudhojī to Pooṇā, hence Rukn-ud-daulā and Dhousā left Ellicpur and

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Siege of Ellicpūr August 1773.

Mudhojī joined Raghunāthrāv at Peḍgāṅv, where Raghujī II was declared *Senā Sāheb Subhā*. Raghunāthrāv and Mudhojī proceeded to Naḷdurg. Raghunāthrāv met Nizām Ali, negotiated a treaty of friendship whereby Mudhojī secured his agreement of 60 to 40 per cent share of Berār with the Nizām. Sābājī and even Daryābāī joined the ministerial party against Raghunāthrāv. The ministers—*Bārabhāī*—put under arrest Mahipatrāv Dinkar and Vyaṅkaṭrāv Kāśī in the Candanvan fort but Mahipat was released on condition that he would secure Mudhojī's support for the ministers at Pooṇā. However, Daryābāī and Sābājī wrote to Sakhārām Purandare to capture the two again but Mahipat Dinkar along with Mahipat Kāśī had already escaped to Ellicpūr and joined Mudhojī there. Mudhojī finding money always short had plundered Amarāvati but still the Pathāns in his army had their salaries in arrears, hence, when Mudhojī returned from Ismāil of Ellicpūr, he was attacked by the Pathāns on the way. Jagdev Gujar, Devajī Doṅgardev, Cimājī Ciṭṇis met the Pathāns' onslaught and Jagdev Gujar died in action. Mudhojī, breaking his thumb in action, was severely wounded[1]. Devajī Doṅgardev, killing some of the Pathāns, finally escaped with Mudhojī to a *Teli's* shop. There too one Rohillā attacked Mudhojī with a dagger in hand but one pedestrian, rushing to Mudhojī's rescue, killed the Rohillā. Ismāil, rushing to the spot, rescued Mudhojī and his wounds were nursed. The conspiracy was hatched by one Pathān named Navāv in Mudhojī's army, who was later beheaded and Mahipat Subhedār who had gone to celebrate his son's marriage at Cāndā, hastened to Ellicpūr and controlled the situation. Raghunāthrāv sent Muhammad Yusuf to the care of Mudhojī. Muhammad Yusuf reached Ellicpūr with 2,000 horse and Mudhojī set out for Nāgpūr. However, Ismāil had refused help to Mudhojī. Sābājī was shot dead in action in the battle that was fought on 26th January 1775 near Pācgāṅv. Bāburāv Vaidya, Bhosle's *vakil* at Pooṇā, brought to Nāgpūr the honours of *Senā Sāheb Subhā*, from Mādhavrāv II, the Peśvā on 24th June 1775. Vyaṅkaṭrāv Kāśī was also set free.

Revolt of Śivājī Bhosle of Amarāvatī 1775.

In the meanwhile, the ministerial party promised Śivājī Bhosle of Amarāvati, *Senā Sāheb Subhāship* and supported him against Mudhojī. On April 6, 1775, the Peśvā gave Śivājī his new *Sanads* and Śivājī raised an army, soliciting support from the partisans of Sābājī. Bhavānī Śivrām[2] escaping from the battle-field of Pācgāṅv, joined Śivājī. However, Śivājī could not secure adequate military help from Pooṇā court and the Nizām. Mudhojī had sent Devājīpant to the Nizām who reconciled him to Mudhojī's interests and the ministers at Pooṇā were too engrossed in their own affairs. Śivājī too had no adequate finances to raise fresh armies and hence Śivājī's efforts against Mudhojī were of no avail. Mudhojī, too, joined the ministerial party at Pooṇā and secured the *sanads* in the name of Raghujī II. The relations of Bhosles of

[1] Kale, *Nagpur Prantacha Itihas*, p. 203.

[2] Bhavani Shivram, thereafter, joined the Nizam and later returned to the Peshwa and never went back to Nagpur. Kale, *op. cit*, Foot-note, 109.

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Amarāvatī and of Nāgpūr were permanently strained[1], and Mudhojī deprived the Bhosles of Amarāvati of their control over Amarāvati and other areas. Mudhojī Bhosle was compelled by the *Bārabhāis*, the ministerial party, to withdraw his protection from Muhammad Yusuf, who for a time, remained concealed in the forests of Madhya Pradeś[2]. But he was discovered, captured and put to death on 26th November 1775.

Affairs at Nāgpūr. Overthrow of Ismāil Khān in Berār.

In 1775 Nizām Alī, taking advantage of the existence of strong party opposed to Mudhojī Bhosle in Nāgpūr, sent Ibrāhim Beg against him, and himself advanced as far as Ellicpūr. Mudhojī, unable to cope at the same time with his foreign and domestic enemies, obtained a cessation of hostilities by causing Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā to be surrendered to the Moghal officers and submitted himself, with his son Raghujī, to Nizām Alī in Ellicpūr. Here the wily Marāṭhā, by the humility of his demeanour, succeeded in obtaining better terms, and in consideration of his agreeing to co-operate with the Nizām's troops in suppressing the Goṇḍs, Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā were restored to him. At the same time Nizam Ali's eldest son, Alī Jāh, was appointed *Subhedār* of Berār. Ismāil Khān was in disgrace. Rukn-ud-daulā, who had befriended him, had been killed and his place had been taken by Ismāil's former enemy, Zafar-ud-daulā. Before Rukn-ud-daulā's intrigues at court, he had left Ellicpūr without leave and presented himself before Nizam Ali. This breach of official etiquette was made the pretext for his degradation and he was informed that *jahāgīr* had been assigned to him in Bāḷapur and that he had been degraded to the position of governor of that district. The message delivered to him was purposely made as galling as possible. He was ordered to vacate Ellicpūr and appear before Nizām Ali and was advised that his surest avenue to favour was to apply for an interview through Zafar-ud-daulā. The headstrong Afghān refused so to humiliate himself, and on this refusal being reported to Nizām Ali, Zafar-ud-daulā was sent against Ellicpūr, and was closely followed by Nizām Ali himself. Ismāil Khān marched out of Ellicpūr and attacked Zafar-ud-daulā with great determination, but though the vigour of the attack threw the enemy into confusion for a time, the garrison of Ellicpūr was no match for the army of Hyderābād. Ismāil Khān was surrounded and overpowered and when he fell his head was severed from his body and sent to the Nizam. Nizām Ali marched on, and on May 14th encamped at Ellicpūr and made a pilgrimage to the shrine of Abdur Rahmān. Zafar-ud-daulā was rewarded for this victory with the title of Mubariz-ul-Mulk. Bahrām Jang was appointed Alī Jāh's lieutenant in Berār, Sayyad Mukarram Khān was appointed *divāṇ* of the province, and a Hindu, Śāmrāv, was made *faujadār* of Ellicpūr.

[1]Vyankaṭrao Kashi and Mahipat Dinkar were kept as prisoners in Gavilgad by Mudhoji, though later on Mahipatrao was released.

[2]Haripant Phaḍke despatched Krishnarao Kale and Parashuram Patvardhan against Muhammad Yusuf. Yusuf marched to the north and intended to cross the Narmada, but Mudhoji's *Sardar* Tajkhan Rohila captured him at Shivani. Tajkhan, on instructions from Mudhoji, handed him over to Parashuram Patvardhan. Haripant Phadke brought him to his camp near Malegaon. Kale, *op. cit.* 210.

Attempt to oust the Marāṭhās.

In 1783 Bahrām Jaṅg was removed from his appointment in Berār and was succeeded by Zafar-ud-daulā's son Ihtiśām Jaṅg. Zafar-ud-daulā had died in the meantime and his title was bestowed upon his son. The second Zafar-ud-daulā was intent on breaking the power of the Marāṭhās in Berār and was preparing to besiege Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā and expel the Marāṭhā revenue collectors from Berār when Mudhojī Bhosle became aware of his designs and complained to Nizām Ali that the governor of Berār was meditating the violation of treaty agreements. Zafar-ud-daulā was, therefore, removed and Muhammad Kabir Khān, one of the *jahāgīrdārs* of the province, was appointed in his place. In 1790 Muhammad Kabir gave way to Salābat Khān, the elder son of Ismāil Khān. In 1792 Bahlol Khān, Salabāt Khān's younger brother, was appointed *Subhedār* of Berār and Auraṅgābād. Bahlol was a debauchee with a taste for architecture and spent all the revenues which his able *Divān*, Khvājā Bahādur, could squeeze out of the province on his pleasures and his hobby. He was summoned to Hyderābād and ordered to render an account of his stewardship, which proved to be so unsatisfactory that he was thrown into prison, where he remained for some years, and officers were sent to search his house in Ellicpūr. If they expected to discover hoarded money they were disappointed for Bahlol had spent the money as he received it.

Sakhoji Bhosle of Amarāvatī 1794.

The relations of Bhosles of Amarāvati and Nāgpūr were strained but Nānā Phaḍṇis in 1794 called Sakhojī Bhosle of Amarāvati to Poonā and reconciled the two. Dājibā Phaḍke and Govindrāv Piṅgaḷe forwarded Sakhojī's letters to Nānā, wherein he pleaded that Amarāvati should be given back to him in *sarañjām*. Nānā on 4th November 1794 agreed to the arrangement and wrote accordingly to *Senā Sāheb Subhā*.

Disturbance in Ellicpūr and siege of Gāvilgaḍ.

The deputy governor of Berār in 1801 was Gaṅgārām Nārāyaṇ, who in that year caused an emeute in Ellicpūr. He introduced a new tax apparently for the purpose of augmenting his private income and attempted to levy it from all the inhabitants of the town alike, including soldiers and other customary exemptees. The malcontents rose and attacked the fort of Ellicpūr. When they burst in, the wretched Gaṅgārām threw himself at their mercy and promised never more to offend them. Thus were the people satisfied and the power and prestige of the government held up to scorn.

The Marāṭhā leaders regarded Bājirāv II's assent to the treaty of Bassein[1] with open alarm and anger. Śinde and Bhosle who disliked particularly the provisions regarding British arbitration in disputes between the Peśvā and other Indian rulers, realised that at last they were face to face with the British power, and that Wellesley's system of subsidiary alliances would reduce them in importance. Śinde and Bhosle, who had crossed the Narmadā with obviously war-like intent, were requested by the British to separate their forces and recross the river, and on their refusal to comply, war was declared in August 1803

[1]Treaty of Bassein was concluded on December 31, 1802 and was ratified by the Governor-General on 10th March 1803.

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General Arthur Wellesley captured Ahmadnagar in August 1803 broke the combined armies of Śinde and Bhosle at Assaye on 23rd September 1803, and then, after forcing on Śinde a temporary suspension of hostilities defeated Bhosle decisively at Aḍagāṅv on 29th November 1803[1]. Bhosle abandoned all his 38 pieces of cannon and ammunition into British hands.

On December 5th, 1803, General Arthur Wellesley having defeated the Marāṭhās at Aḍagāṅv on November 29th, arrived at Ellicpūr on his way to Gāvilgaḍ, which was held for Raghujī Bhosle by the Rajput Beni Singh. On the 7th Wellesley marched to Devgāṅv, below the southern face of the fort, sending Colonel Stevenson and his division by a route about thirty miles in length through the hills with the object of attacking the fort from the north. From the 7th to the 12th Stevenson's division suffered great hardships, dragging the heavy ordnance and stores by hand over roads which the troops themselves made for the occasion. On the 12th Stevenson occupied Labada, a village, now deserted, on the *Col* which connects the Gāvilgaḍ hill with the Cikhaldarā plateau, and just north of the fort, near the present cemetery. On the night of the 12th, Stevenson erected two batteries opposite to the north face of the fort, where the principal attack was to be delivered and on the same night Wellesley's division erected a battery on a hill under the southern gate, the Pir Fateh *darvāzā*, but this battery was of little use save to distract the enemy's attention from the attack on the north face, for the heavy iron guns could not be moved to the top of the hill, and the brass guns produced but little effect. On the morning of December 13th all the batteries opened fire on the fort, and by the night of the 14th the breaches in the northern face were practicable and all arrangements had been made for storming the place. The storming party consisted of the flank companies of the 4th Regiment and of the native corps in Stevenson's divisions and was commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Kenny of the 1st battalion of the 11th Madras Native Infantry. It was supported by the battalion companies of the 94th and Lieutenant-Colonel Halyburton's brigade, Lieutenant-Colonel Macleane's brigade being in reserve, and the attack was delivered at 10 A.M. on the 15th. At the same time Wellesly delivered two attacks from the south. One was directed against the southern gate, the attacking party consisting of the 74th Highlanders, five companies of the 78th Highlanders and the 1st battalion of the 8th Regiment of Madras Native Infantry under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Wallace of the 74th, and the objective of the other party, which consisted of the remaining five companies of the 78th Highlanders and the 1st battalion of the 10th Regiment of Madras Native Infantry, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Chalmers, was the north-western gate.

[1] Stevenson had advanced against Bhosle's strong fort of Gavilgad. He left Balapur on 26th November, was joined by General Arthur Wellesley, and two together made a dash against Bhosle's force which had in the meantime been reinforced by Shinde in violation of the truce he had already made.

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These two attacks from the south were destined merely to distract the enemy's attention from Stevenson's attack on the north, unless it should be found possible to blow the gates in. Neither of the two gates was blown in, but Chalmers' column was able to perform a useful service for it arrived at the north-western gate at the same time as a detachment sent forward by Stevenson, whose first attack had been successful, to establish communication with Chalmers, and in time to intercept considerable numbers of the enemy who were flying from that detachment through the gate. Chalmers was thus enabled not only to enter the outer fort without difficulty, and thus join forces with Stevenson for the attack on the northern face of the inner fort, but also to destroy large numbers of the fleeing enemy.

Fall of Gāvilgaḍ.

The next task of the besiegers was to effect an entrance into the inner fort, the wall of which had not been breached, and some ineffectual attempts were made to force an entrance by the Delhi gate which was the strongest gate in the fort and was exceedingly well provided with flank defences on the Indian system of fortification. A place was then found where it was possible to scale the wall and Captain Campbell, with the light company of the 94th, fixed the ladders, escaladed the wall, and opened the Delhi gate to the storming party. After a brief resistance the fort was in the possession of Wellesley's troops, but the slaughter of the enemy was great, especially at the gates. The bodies of the *killedār* and Beni Singh were found amidst a heap of slain within the Delhi gate. Some of the Rajputs, and among them these two officers, had attempted to perform the rite of *jauhār* before sallying out to meet their assailants, but fortunately the work was clumsily done, for of the twelve or fourteen women only three were found to be dead and a few others wounded. The survivors were treated with respect and were well cared for.

The British losses were very small, considering the nature of the operation. Among the British troops three officers were wounded, of whom two, Lieutenant-Colonel Kenny already mentioned, and Lieutenant Young of the 2nd battalion of the 7th Madras Native Infantry died, and five rank and file were killed and fifty-nine wounded. The casualties among native troops were eight killed and fifty-one wounded. Lieutenant-Colonel Kenny was buried at Ellicpūr and Lieutenant Young near the spot where he fell. Around the latter's grave the Cikhaldarā cemetery wall is built.

General Sir Jasper Nicolls in his diary praises the personal bravery of Beni Singh and the *killedār*, but adds that they did not seem to be able to frame any regular plan for the defence of the inner wall, or to have infused much of their own spirit into their sepoys. It is, indeed, evident from the insignificance of the besiegers' losses, that the victories of Assaye and Adgāṅv had awed the troops of the Marāṭhās, and the defence of the

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fort was far from being resolute. The difficulties with which the attacking force had to contend arose principally from the nature of the country. Stevenson's arduous march through the hills has already been described. Of this feat Wellesley wrote 'the troops in his division went through a series of laborious services, such as I never before witnessed, with the utmost cheerfulness and perseverance'. Wellesley's own division was less severely tried, but the erection of a battery on the hill under the southern gate must have entailed much heavy labour, and their operations on 15th must have been most exhausting, even to the Highlanders of the 74th and 78th Regiments, for the approaches to the fort from the south are exceedingly difficult.

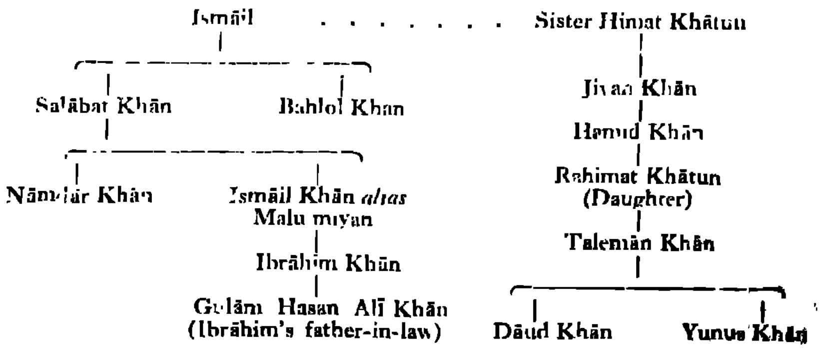
Treaties of Devgāṅv and Añjangāṅv.

Two days after the fall of Gāvilgaḍ a preliminary treaty was signed at Devgāṅv, Wellesley's headquarters, by which Raghujī Bhosle agreed to withdraw from the plains of Berar to the east of the Wardhā river, retaining, however, the fortresses of Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā, and the Melghāṭ. This treaty, which was described by the Governor-General in a private letter to his brother as 'wise, honourable, and glorious,' was followed by another with Śinde, signed on December 29th at Añjangāṅv in the Daryāpur *tahsil.* These two treaties brought the second Marāṭhā war to a conclusion.

Civil and Military administration.

Rājā Mahipat Ram, who had commanded the subsidiary force supplied by the Nizām for the second Marāṭhā war, was rewarded with the governorship of Berār, but intrigued against the minister in Hyderābād, was degraded and then openly rebelled against the Nizām. After giving some trouble he took refuge with Holkar, in whose dominions he was assassinated. In 1806 Rājā Govind Bakhṣ succeeded him as *subhedār* of Berār and Auraṅgābād. In 1813 Viṭhal Bhāgadev of Karasgāṅv, who has left us a monument of himself in his native town, a fort of fine sandstone, was appointed deputy governor of Ellicpūr. Throughout these changes Salābat Khan held a large *jahāgīr* at Ellicpūr for the purpose of maintaining the Ellicpūr brigade, consisting of two battalions of infantry and 1,600 horse which were reported by the Resident Mr. (afterwards Sir Henry) Russell in 1817 as being among the best troops in the Nizam's army.

Navābs of Ellicpūr 1795–1825.



Ismāil was killed in action and left behind two sons, Salābat Khān and Bahlol Khān. Ellicpur *jahāgīr* was left for management to Bahlol as Salābat Khān accompanied the Nizām with

his army. When the Nizām faced the Marāṭhās at Khardā in 1795, Lāl Khān, the Navāb of Karnul and Salābat Khān attacked Paraśurām Bhāu Paṭvardhan. Bhāu's son, Haripant killed Lāl Khān, but Salābat Khān saved the position, somehow rallying the army and faced Jivabā Bakṣi of the Śinde army. However the Nizām was completely defeated at Khardā by the Marāṭhās. Bahlol proved to be a failure and Salābat was re-appointed at Ellicpūr. Salābat accompanied Sir Arthur Wellesley from Adagāṅv and attacked Gāvilgaḍ. The soldiers wounded at Gāvilgaḍ were well nourished at Ellicpūr under the supervision of Sir Arthur Wellesley. The new cantonment was stationed at Paratvaḍā, three miles from Ellicpūr. Salābat Khān's *divāṇ*, Fateh Jaṅg furnished the city of Ellicpūr with new pipe-lines but being a *Śia*-Muslim, he was not well-supported by the other courtiers. His relations with Ismāil Khān were strained and hence he was removed to Auraṅgabād by the Nizām.

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Navābs of Ellicpūr 1795—1825

Third Marāṭhā war, Peṇḍhārī war, Treaty of 1822 and the Assignment.

The district was not affected by the war of 1817-18, but the Peśvā Bājīrāv II after his defeat by Lieutenant-Colonel Adams at Śivani in the Yeotmāḷ district, fled northwards through the district into the Sātpuḍā hills.

The treaty of Devgāṅv had left the Melghāṭ with its two fortresses in the hands of the Bhosles and the tract served as a refuge and stronghold for rebels and outlaws, the most notorious of whom was Śeikh Dullā, whose depredations in the hills, and excursions into the richer plains extended over some years. The district was not the scene of any important action during the Peṇḍhārī war, though it had suffered from the ravages of these marauders. The wall which surrounds the town of Amarāvati was built in 1807 as a protection against their inroads, and there was some local fighting for the *khunari* ('bloody') wicket in this wall is said to be so called from 700 persons having fallen in a fight close to it in 1818. The British army from Amarāvati had marched to Bagala Tur, via Amner, Multai, Śahāpur, Śivani, and on December 5th, 1817, General Doveton had marched with the Nizām's subsidiary force, through Jāfarābād, Amarāvatī and reached Nāgpūr on 12th December 1817.

General Doveton[1], after capturing Nāgpūr, marched on 21st January 1818, towards Khāndeś, pursuing Bājīrav II. He marched to Amner, Hivarkheḍā and reached Ellicpūr. From Amner, he sent Major Pittman towards Akolā and Amarāvatī and Captain Jones to capture Gāvilgaḍ. From Adagāṅv, a company marched to Narnāḷā and both these forts were surrendered over to the British officers. Transferring these forts to the Navāb of Ellicpūr, General Doveton marched to Malkāpur and thence to Khāndeś.

[1]He was instructed to capture Narnala and Gavilgad. Akot, Adagaon, Vadner, along with Narnala, and Gavilgad were to be ceded to Salabat Khan, the Navab of Ellichpur. According to the new arrangement, Bhatkuli paragana, near Amaravati was also to be ceded to Raja Govind Baksh, of Hyderabad. The Peshva's region in Melghat up to the Tapi was to be ceded to Salabat Khan.

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Third Marāṭhā War, Peṇḍāhrī War, Treaty of 1822, and the Assignment.

In 1822 after the conclusion of the Peṇḍhārī war, a fresh treaty was made whereby the tracts lying to the east of the Wardhā were ceded to Nāgpūr, and the Melghāṭ, with its fortresses, Gāvilgaḍ and Narnāḷā, was restored to the Nizām. By the same treaty the claims of the Marāṭhās to *cauth* were extinguished, but this provision benefited Berār little, for extravagance and maladministration at the capital led to the farming out of the province to usurers, and these extortioners reduced it to a condition of great misery, which was enhanced by the famine of 1833.

Nāmdār Khān 1825-1845.

Salābat Khān died in 1825 and was succeeded by Nāmdār Khān at Ellicpur He raised new taxes and hence was called "Bania Navāb". In his times Vagambari, Alaspuri (Ellicpuri) and Triśuḷi coins were in circulation. Jamoji, Dudandi, Devulgavi and Vashimche coins too were in circulation. Nāmdār Khān was a great builder; Barādari, Imāmvāḍā Mosque and Nāmdār *bāg* were constructed by him in Ellicpūr. The famous hall of mirrors (*Arase-mahāl*) which he built is however already brought to dust. Nāmdār Khān defeated the pretender of Āppāsāheb Bhosle, captured him and imprisoned him at Ellicpūr where he died. Suffering from facial paralysis, Nāmdār Khān led, thereafter, a miserable life and died at the age of fifty-four, in 1845. He was succeeded by Ibrāhim Khān, son of Nāmdār's elder brother.

Ibrāhim Khān 1845-1849.

Ibrāhim Khān sent Sitārām Paṇdit to Rājārām Bakṣ, *Divāṇ-Nāib* of Hyderābād for his new *sanads*. Being ordered to pay fourteen lakhs for his *sanad* and having no other source to fall on, Ibrahim entered the palace of his uncle, and depriving the harem of the rich ornaments and treasury, collected one crore of rupees. Though Ibrāhim Khān sent this amount to Hyderābād, actually three lakhs of rupees only were received by the Nizām and the *sanad* still was not granted to Ibrāhim. Śirāj Husain, the *Munśī* had left Ibrāhim and now was serving Rājārām Bakṣ at Hyderābād. Conspiring against Ibrāhim, they sent Ghisekhā to collect the tribute from Ibrāhim, failing which he was ordered to plunder Ellicpūr. Ghisekhā encamped near Dooladarga, north of Ellicpūr and Ibrāhim agreed to hand over the fort and city of Ellicpūr to him. Ghisekhā's army collected tribute from Vilāyatpurā Bazār, hearing which Gulām Hasan Ali Khān rushed to the town and dissuaded Ibrāhim to hand over the city to Ghisekhā. Ghisekhā's Arabs were driven out of the city but Ghisekhā knowing his strength was no match for Gulām Hasan Ali Khān, did nothing for the time being. On the *Muharram* day, Ghisekhā was ordered to shift his camp still further but he refused to do so, relying on his artillery. However, his cannons were captured and his camp had to be shifted to Paratvāḍā, three miles further north. Ghisekhā awaited reinforcement from Hyderābād but in the meanwhile died at Paratvāḍā.

Berār was reduced to great misery in 1845-1846 due to a great famine, but this was compensated by the return of prosperity

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the very next year. In 1849 Ellicpur was severely affected by cholera and Ibrāhim himself succumbed to the epidemic, at the age of 54, and was succeeded by Śamsa Khātun, daughter of Gulām Hasan Khān.

The Nizāms. *Gulām Hasan Ali Khān 1849-1853.*

Gulām Hasan Ali Khān, the regent was also called Hasumia. The *Sarfkhas* region very near Ellicpūr was ruled directly by the Nizām's officers, but this led to many bickerings between Gulām Hasan Ali Khān and the Nizām. Gulām Hasan Ali Khān, too refused to pay seventeen lakhs to Śams-ul-Umarā, the *Divāṇ* of Hyderābād for the new *sanad.* The Navābs of Ellicpūr had a very rare and exquisite copy of *Korāṇ* in their custody. Śams-ul-Umarā sent the message that he wanted to see what it was made of, and in spite of the refusal of the citizens, the Navāb had to send the copy to Hyderābād as he was powerless before the might of Śams-ul-Umarā.

Gulām Hasan Ali Khān depended now on the advice of his councillors, Bahādar Khān and Kundanmal leaving aside Keśavrāv, the councillor of Ibrāhim. The district was reduced to great misery at the hands of these extortioners. Keśavrāv could save himself from their clutches only by taking poison and this period notoriously remained permanent in the memory of the people as "Bahādar Khāni". The *vatandārs* of Berār finally appealed to Rājārām Bakṣ and Bisancand was ordered to take over the city of Ellicpūr. Bisancand with his army marched from Amarāvati to Dhanora, 5 *cos* from Ellicpūr but was defeated by the Navāb in 1850. Thomas Brown had led the artillery of the Navāb against Bisancand. The *Divāṇ* of Hyderābād sent Sirāj-ud din Husain against Narnāḷā but though he captured Akoli, Akolakheḍ, Boradi near Akolā, he was finally defeated by the Navāb near Surji Añjangāṅv. However Sirāj-ud-din Husain remained in power as *Munsif* of Narnāḷā. In 1851, the new *Divāṇ* of Hyderābād Sirāj-ul-Mulk demanded seven lakhs from the Navāb of Ellicpūr to settle finally the dispute about the *sanad* and Kundanmal, paying the amount, the Navāb obtained territory yielding four and half lakhs revenue. The Navāb however could not enjoy the peace for a long time, as in 1853 the English entered into a treaty with the Nizām and the district, with the rest of Berār was assigned to the East India company, in satisfaction of the debt due on account of arrears of pay disbursed to the contingent and as security for the pay of that force in future. Puraṇmal confiscated the property of Gulām Hasan Ali Khān as the debts of seven lakhs were in arrears. However the rest of the property was claimed by the two brothers Dāud Khan and Yunus Khān, the descendants through Ismāil's sister Himat Khātun.

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The War of Independence and the Treaty of 1861.

The war of 1857 scarcely affected Berār. Tātyā Ṭope in October 1858 crossed the Bitva river at Canderi and forced his way through the Melghāṭ. In November he attacked Sohagpur with 2,500 men and plundering the city, he marched to Mota in the [illegible] ranges, north of the Melghāṭ, in December. He

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plundered Multai but hearing that the British army headed towards Nāgpūr, he turned eastward and raised the Gonds, Bhils and Korkus against the British. Meadows Taylor who was Deputy Commissioner during a portion of this time, however, praises the loyalty of the Melghāṭ Rājās in repelling emissaries sent by the rebels to raise the Deccan. In 1858 the fortress of Gāvilgaḍ was dismantled, and in 1861 the treaty of assignment was revised, the Nizām receiving several advantages in return for his loyalty to the British in the war of independence.

When the province first fell into the hands of the Company it was divided into two districts, South Berār (the '*Bālā Ghāṭ*') with its headquarters at Hiṅgoli and North Berār with headquarters at Bulḍhāṇā. The latter district included the whole Pāyanghāṭ valley, that is to say the present Amarāvati district, the northern half of Akolā and of Bulḍhāṇā. After the War Hiṅgoli with the neighbouring country was restored to the Nizām, and the province reconstituted into East Berār with headquarters at Amarāvati, and West Berār with headquarters at Akolā. New officers were appointed under the Resident. Their scales of pay were on a par with those of the officers in the Punjab.

In 1864 the Yeotmāḷ district, at first called the South-east Berār and later the Wani district, was separated from Amarāvati and in 1867 the Ellicpūr district, which at first included the *tahsil* of Morśi, subsequently restored to Amarāvati, was formed. In 1903 the treaties of Assignment were superseded by an agreement under which the Nizām leased Berār to the Government of India in perpetuity in return for an annual rent of twenty-five lakhs. However it was decided that on the first day of every January, the Nizām's flag would be unfurled at Amarāvati and would be given a salutation by the cannons from the British army. The people of Berār were consulted on the occasion of this transfer, and all the farmers who had earlier escaped to distant regions due to disturbed conditions of the province, returned and contributed towards the new prosperity.

The new factories attracted labour from Ahmadnagar and Śolāpur. Educated clerks from Bombay, Pooṇā and Madras areas flocked to the new Government offices. The northerners and the Marwaris as well participated in the immense trade activities, leading to the re-awakening and adventurism in enterprises in the fields not only of economic nature but also in social and educational setup. But this new leadership took time to settle in the district and during the twenty-five years terminating in 1903, the number of bridges on the rivers, rail-lines, high schools, English schools, dispensaries remained the same. The money from the district supported colleges outside but could not conduct one of its own till 1903.

Though Berār remained a land of Hindu saints it could not sufficiently escape the activities of the Christian missionaries, since the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Reverend Stephen Hislop of Nāgpūr especially sent Narayan Sheshādri, a

newly converted Brāhmaṇ, to Amarāvati, who started the missionary work there under Reverend Sidoba Misal. The first Hindu to be converted, happened to be a Rajput youth, Baldev Singh, who had been brought to Amarāvati as an orphan by the Commissioner, Colonel Mackenzie. At this juncture, Maharshi Annasaheb Patvardhan desiring to redeem Berār from the British control, is said to have deputed secretly Bhau Nirulkar and Bhikajipant Deshpande to offer ten to twelve crores of rupees to the Nizām's *Divān*, Sālār Jang, who might with that money, pay off the debts of the Nizām to the British, who had confiscated Berār, on that account. Vyankat Parmal, Rājā of Kurwat State in the Madras Presidency also had offered terms to the same effect, to Patvardhan. However, Sālār Jang died a sudden death when cholera was suspected and Parmal, too passed away.

The agreement with the Nizām was signed in December 1902 and the Berār including Amarāvati district was joined to the Central Provinces in 1903 to form the enlarged province of Central Provinces and Berār. In this form it remained until the attainment of freedom.

Under the new setup the administration of Berār was made over to the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces. There was some agitation prominently by the Muhammadans and a few *Jahāgirdārs* against joining Berār to the Central Provinces and a meeting was held in Amarāvati on the 21st February 1903 in which the decision of the Government of India was opposed. It was at this time that Lord Curzon took the momentous decision of partitioning Bengal. There was great political upsurge in India and Amarāvati had its own share in vehemently opposing the measure. In 1904 Amarāvati gave a rousing reception to Lokamanya Tilak for his acquittal by the High Court in what was then known as the Tai Maharaj case.

Out of the anti-partition agitation was born the cult of *Svadeśi* and Boycott. The 1905 Session of the Congress at Benaras was held in a grim and indignant mood. Dadasaheb Khaparde from Amarāvati represented the extremist group of Tilak whereas Mudholkar represented the moderate school. The end of Curzon's term marked the beginning of India's aggressive political awakening. The Congress in its Session at Calcutta in 1906 declared *Svarāj* as its immediate goal. The extremist headed by Lal, Bal and Pal dominated the proceedings. It was at this time that the terrorist movement began to assume serious proportions. Occasions like *Siva Jayanti* and *Ganeśotsava* were utilised to inflame popular passions and emotions. The 1907 session was to be held at Nāgpūr and Khaparde and Munje toured the province including Amarāvati to assess popular opinion and establish the Nationalist wing of the Congress. The meeting of the reception committee convened on the 22nd September 1907 at the Town Hall in Nāgpūr to elect Lokmanya Tilak President of the Session could not be held and the venue of the session had to be changed to Surat. That precipitated the

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breach between the moderates and the extremists. The spasmodic attempts made by the British Government to grant political reforms to India were too late and too inadequate. Agitation, repression and violence followed in their wake. In the midst of this fury, many parts of the country including Madhya Pradeś were afflicted by famine in 1907-1908 as a result of inadequate rainfall. In the meanwhile the slow moving process of constitutional reforms was working itself out in the British Parliament. The Moriey Minto reforms were introduced in 1909 but they did little to assuage public opinion and further estranged the people and the government. Lord Minto made it clear in his address to the Imperial Legislative Assembly in 1909 that the Provincial Councils and the Central Assembly were not intended to transfer any power to Indians. The consequent wave of discontent resulted in the imprisonment of many political leaders and almost the first fruit of the new reforms was the Press Act of 1910 which effectively suppressed every nationalist paper.

The year 1911 was significant because determined efforts were made by some Hindu and Muslim leaders to bring about unity between the two communities. It may be mentioned here that Berār had hardly 4 per cent Muslims in its population (1891). They were neither influenced by the National Movement nor did they join the Congress. As a matter of fact in 1906, when the Chief Commissioner of Nāgpūr Mr. Craddock visited Amarāvati, he exhorted the Muslims to keep away from the Congress agitation. But the unity conference which had been held before the next session of the Muslim League by a resolution defined its object as the attainment of Self-Government under the British Empire. The Congress session at Karachi, which soon followed, endorsed its complete accord with the principle underlying the above declaration, *viz.*, the political future of the country depends on the harmonious working and co-operation of the various communities in the country. The year 1913 saw the beginning of a new era in Central Provinces. On 8th November of that year the Central Provinces Legislative Council was formed. Among the members were Mudholkar and Moropant Joshi of Amarāvati. The war broke out in Europe in August 1914. There was enthusiastic support for the war effort and the cause of Allies, but little did the Indians expect at that time that the reward for so lively an effort would be so little. The Legislative Council of the Central Provinces had met hardly 15 days after the start of hostilities and it evoked speeches outlining a better understanding in future about the Indian political aspirations by the British Government. But the passing of the Defence of India Act in 1915 shattered all these hopes. Under these circumstances the Nationalist forces in India decided to reconcile the dividing lines in Indian political life. This led to the establishment of Home Rule League in 1916 aimed at the attainment of *Svarāj* by all constitutional means. Khaparde wholeheartedly supported the Home Rule League. The 1916 Lucknow session of the Congress and Muslim

League forged unity between the Congress and the League. They presented a united front to the British Government. However, the Government was in a belligerent mood. In the meanwhile the Provincial Association was held in 1916 at Amarāvati and devoted a considerable part of its business to matters relating to the State. It asked for elected municipal committees for towns with a population of 5,000 and more, elected and more powerful district councils and establishment of *grām pañcāyats* all over the province. The Government, however, was not in a mood to listen. The Home Rule agitation led by Tilak and Mrs Beasant, which had been gathering momentum, gave the Government an opportunity to let loose a reign of terror. The leaders of all political parties joined the movement and it caught hold of even with the student population. A number of students in Nāgpūr, Wardha, Yeotmāḷ and Amarāvati were expelled from their schools. It was in these circumstances that Montague took office as Secretary of State, in July 1917. He seemed to have a genuine love for India. He made the famous declaration of August 20, 1917 and announced his intention to visit India and consult the Indian leaders to work out a scheme of reforms embodying the principles of the declaration. But the words of the Secretary of State were belied by the action of government which appointed a committee under the chairmanship of Justice Rowlatt to enquire into criminal conspiracies and the spread of revolutionary associations in India. This was a warning to the people that more diabolical weapons were being sharpened for the chastisement of the so called sedition mongers This provoked and exasperated the people. The Calcutta Congress session of 1917 voiced its concern over this new development. Tilak on his way back covered a number of places in Nāgpūr and Berār divisions, speaking about the objects of Home Rule. In 1918 it was proposed to send a deputation to England including Pal, Kelkar and Khaparde. However, under the orders of the British War Council the deputation did not sail. At the same time in the mounting wave of discontent Montague was touring the provinces. He met Dadasaheb Khaparde, Mudholkar, Moropant Joshi and others from the Central Provinces. The district political conferences had now become a regular feature and helped to spread political awakening in rural areas. Such conferences were held in Chindwāḍā, Bālāghāṭ, Amarāvati, Cāndā, etc. They transformed the political struggle from a middle class movement into a mass movement. In this atmosphere of repression and awakening the Montague Chelmsford Report was presented to the British Parliament. It evoked sharp criticism from the leaders of Madhya Pradeś. The Congress and Muslim League voiced their dissatisfaction. To add fuel to the fire, the report of the Rowlatt Committee was also published recommending special trials without a jury for political cases. The promises, half-hearted though they were, embodied in the Montague Chelmsford Report were nullified by the unmistakable repressive measures suggested by the Rowlatt

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Committee. The war ended in 1918. It brought in its wake epidemics which took a heavy toll. In Central Provinces five per cent of the population fell victim to epidemics. The presentation of the Rowlatt Bill to the Imperial Legislative Council led to a storm of protest in every town of Madhya Prades as elsewhere in India. The expeditious manner in which the bill was presented contrasted unfavourably with the preparation of the bill embodying the suggestions made in the Montague Chelmsford Report. The bill became law 20 months after Montague submitted his report.

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At this time a new figure had emerged on the political horizon of India, *viz.*, Gandhiji. Gandhiji had implored the viceroy not to give assent to the Rowlatt Bill, which went unheeded. Gandhiji therefore proposed *Satyāgraha* which found widespread support in Central Provinces. The *Satyāgraha* was observed with remarkable success throughout the country. But it brought on the tragedy of Jalianvalla Bāg at Amritsar where the brutal firing by the British led to the massacre of 400 innocent men, women and children. Gandhiji suspended the movement. The victory celebrations were naturally far from popular in Central Provinces.

Meanwhile the reforms were put through. Moropant Joshi, among others, pleaded for the acceptance of the reforms. The appeal went unheeded. At this time India suffered a tragic loss in the death of Lokamanya Tilak. The nation stood still and a countrywide *hartāḷ* was observed. However, the appointed task had to be performed and the Congress which met at Calcutta in September 1920 outlined the programme of non-co-operation. Surprisingly enough Khaparde opposed the policy of non-violent, non-co-operation. The policy however was fully endorsed later at the Nāgpūr session of the Congress. This session also passed other resolutions which were destined to have salutary effect on the country in the years to come. The Congress accepted the linguistic principle for the realignment of provinces. Accordingly, the Central Provinces were grouped under three committees, the Berār, the Hindi Central Provinces and the Marāṭhī Central Provinces. This resulted in diffusing the political agitation centred in Nāgpūr to Jabalpūr and Amarāvati which became the radiating nuclei of Congress from where the movement spread out into the districts. In Berār where the national movement had taken firm roots it progressed under the leadership of Khaparde, Munje, Aney and Wamanrav Joshi. The year 1922 dawned and Gandhiji was ready with the programme of mass civil disobedience. However, the tragedy at Chauri Chura where a few constables were killed by a mob led Gandhiji to cry a halt to the movement. The event resulted in the arrest of Gandhiji on 10th March 1922.

The life of the first legislature formed under the Reforms came to an end with the monsoon sitting of 1923. The special session of the Congress held in Delhi permitted congressmen to contest

elections and suspended its propaganda against entering the councils. The 1923 elections, therefore, brought the *Svarājists* in substantial strength in the Provincial Councils and the Central Assembly. In Central Provinces the *Svarājists* were as good as their word in legislature. The budget was thrown out. The government carried insidious propaganda to malign the *Svarājists*. However, the diarchy introduced by the government in the provincial administration had failed to work smoothly and events of 1924 were heading towards a crisis. Communal clashes had occurred in many parts of the country and with the virtual extinction of the Khilāfat movement the government was in a position to raise the bogey of communalism and play the game of pitting one community against another.

In these circumstances a rift appeared to be developing among the *Svarājists*. This was conspicuously visible in the Marāṭhī districts of both Madhya Pradeś and Bombay where a drift was seen towards revision of their policies inside the council. On October 1925 the executive committee of the Berār *Svarāj* party declared the adoption of the policy of Responsive Co-operation, the main exponent of this policy being S. B. Tambe. Motilal Nehru denounced this deviation from the accepted stand of the Congress and declared in his speech at Amarāvati that the phrase responsive co-operation had no meaning in the prevailing situation. This however had no effect on the Mahārāṣṭra *Svarāj* party. The stand taken by Motilal Nehru was reaffirmed by the Cawnpore session of the Congress. In 1926, before elections, the *Svarājists* withdrew from the Legislative Council of Central Provinces and the government suspended diarchy in the provinces. The 1926 elections showed a rift in the *Svarājist* party. The congress was returned in reduced strength. Berār elected M. S. Aney to the Central Assembly. With the elections over, a new phase in the clashes within the councils began and the year 1927 saw the unusual spectacle of the stream of the national movement being fed and strengthened by incidents inside the legislatures. In 1927 the government declared the appointment of an All White Reforms Commission headed by Sir John Simon. The reaction from all parties was a spontaneous denouncement of the Commission. The day the Commission landed on 3rd February 1928 was observed as a day of mourning all over India. At all the places which the Commission visited, it was met with boycott. The attitude of the government was also stiffening. In 1929 the Commission submitted its report. There was a change in the government in England. The Labour government offered to invite leaders of all political parties for a Round Table Conference. This was regarded as too late by the Indian leaders. Gandhiji declared that "*Svarājya* is now to mean complete independence". The struggle had begun and its call came from the Lahore Congress. Even in distant parts of the Central Provinces, not to speak of more accessible areas, the tricolour went up. In obedience to the resolution of Lahore Congress the members of Central Assembly and Provincial Legislatures resigned. The movement spread all over Central

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Provinces immediately. A War Council was formed in Berar with Wamanrav Joshi as president and Biyani as secretary. The Salt Law and the Forest Law were violated. The government quickly arrested the leaders. The *Satyāgraha* spread among the *Ādivāsis* as well. Taḷegāṅv was one of the places among others affected in the district where a whole batch of 500 volunteers offering *Satyāgraha* to defy the forest law was arrested. The students played a splendid role in the *Satyāgraha*. The government used all the repressive measures at its command. The Press Ordinance was issued demanding securities from newspapers. *Udaya* from Amarāvati ceased publication by refusing to pay the security.

The government till so far had stayed its hands in not arresting Gandhiji. But now it put him under arrest at Surat and imprisoned him at Yeravada Jail in Pooṇā. The Congress Committees were declared as unlawful assemblies. All eyes were now revetted on the Round Table Conference. The Central Provinces had only one representative on it, *viz.*, S. B. Tambe. The Round Table Conference was held on 12th November 1930 but in the absence of the Congress the voice of India was nowhere to be heard. In such circumstances the Round Table Conference was concluded on 19th January 1931 by Ramsay Macdonald, the British Prime Minister, when he remarked that steps would be taken to enlist the co-operation of those sections of public opinion which had kept away from the conference. This meant that the door was kept open for negotiations with the Congress. Gandhiji was subsequently released. He agreed to hold talks with Irwin, the viceroy. The Gandhi-Irwin Pact (Delhi Pact) was the result (March 1931). As a consequence among other terms the civil disobedience movement was to be given up and a stage was to be set for the holding of another session of Round Table Conference, and the political prisoners to be released. However, the government did not stick to the provisions of the pact. The execution of Bhagat Singh, Sukhdev and Rajguru of the Lahore Conspiracy case on 23rd March 1931 was in defiance of public demand for commutation of their death sentences. *Satyāgrahī* prisoners of the movement were also not released. There were protest meetings in Amarāvati as Wamanrav Joshi and Abhyankar were not released. The bureaucracy also exhibited its reactionary attitude in other ways. Gandhiji attended the Round Table Conference in London, but was dismayed to see the proceedings of the conference bogged down by the cynical self-seeking of many of the Indian representatives. The conference was more a fiasco than a failure. Gandhiji returned to India and proposed to the nation to don the mantle of civil disobedience again. The governor of the Central Provinces accused the Congress of fostering war mentality. India was again in a grip of ruthless repression. A notable factor of the new wave of enthusiasm that had now engulfed the people was the increasing number of women volunteers participating in the mass upsurge. Surprisingly, the government decided to impose heavy fines upon women

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volunteers to deal effectively with women *Satyāgrahis*. In spite of the repressive measures, the movement continued with unabated vigour. In these circumstances the Congress decided to hold its session at Delhi. So also, the Mahākosal, Nāgpūr and Vidarbha Congress decided to hold its session at Nāgpūr. But the Presidents-elect of the two *viz.*, Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya and Ghanshyamsing Gupta, respectively, were put behind the bars. After having imprisoned the national and provincial leaders, the government decided to terrorise the political workers by brutal treatment. The affairs in Amarāvati and Rāipūr Jails became particularly notorious. The atrocities committed by superintendent Harvey of Amarāvati Jail roused the whole province and even the outside world. It was at this moment that Gandhiji launched on his historic fast unto death to prevent the Harijan community from being cut off from the Hindu fold through the decree of the Communal Award. The nation spent six anxious days till the Poona Pact was made under which separate electorates for Harijans were done away with. The Congress, though many of its leaders were in prison, decided to hold its session at Calcutta. In its wake had come the white paper proposals. The session was a short meet but it denounced the white paper proposals which contained the same obnoxious features of Round Table Conference *viz.*, safeguards, reservations and privileges accorded to the princes. The civil disobedience movement had by now lost all its vigour and had become a spent force. The Congress leaders were now engaged in working out a positive course of action to end the state of suspended animation of civil disobedience and evolve an alternative policy. The Patna Congress decided upon the re-entry into council under a specified programme. The civil disobedience movement was suspended and elections were to be fought with animated vigour. The Congress was now well set to accept any challenge of constitutional reforms. A stage was now set for the inauguration of the Government of India Act, 1935. The provisions of the Act, are too well known to warrant narration here. The Congress swept off polls everywhere and won a clear majority in the Central Provinces. Before taking the oath of office the Congress decided to seek an assurance from the Governor that he would act according to the advice of the Council of Ministers. The Central Provinces leader of the Congress party as in other provinces asked for this assurance which the governor refused. The governor thereupon appointed a ministry of four consisting of Dr. Raghavendra Rav and others but refrained from summoning a meeting of the Assembly. On the other hand the elected members met at Nāgpūr and elected their Speaker and Deputy Speaker. This was an unprecedented constitutional crisis. At last the government gave in and the viceroy made a conciliatory statement, stating that the governor would at all times be concerned to carry his ministers with him. The elaboration was accepted by the Congress which decided to accept office. On 14th July 1937 the first popularly elected

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Congress ministry headed by Dr. Khare assumed the Government of the Central Provinces. The ministry introduced many reforms, chief among them being liberalisation of forest rights, opening of schools for *Ādivāsis*, introduction of local self-government and the Vidya Mandir Scheme of Education. The question now faced by the Congress which had a clear majority in six provinces was, to whom were the ministers to be responsible? To the Central Parliamentary Board of the party or to the local members of the party. The Congress decided upon the former principle which was unacceptable to Dr. Khare. He resigned and a new ministry was formed with Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla as the Chief Minister. Sessions of the Congress were held at Haripura and Tripuri. The Muslim League was again raising the bogey of communalism.

Second World War.

The Second World War now burst upon the world. India, against her will, was dragged into the throes of war. However, the Congress was willing to declare its whole-hearted support to the war against Fascism provided the British Government declared its war aims. The British clearly lacked the vision the situation demanded and harped on the same old white paper. The attitude of the Muslim League was extremely non-co-operative and anti-national. While the war brought the Government and the League closer, it estranged the relations between the Government and the Congress. The resignation of the Congress ministers was inevitable. On the 4th November 1939 the Central Provinces Legislative Council met to discuss the resolution on war moved by the Chief Minister before submitting his resignation. The Congress Working Committee met at Wardhā from 18th to 22nd December 1939 and the Congress President gave a call to the nation to prepare for what he called achievement of complete independence. It was at this time that Jinah, the League leader, brought forth the idea of a separate State for Muslims, declaring that the Hindu-Muslim question was not a national one but international in character. In spite of these provocations the Congress assured its full support to Britain in her life and death struggle against Hitler if Britain declared unequivocally the grant of complete independence to India as its aim. The Government came out with what became known as the 'August Offer' which was to enlarge the executive council with a view to include a few Indians. It was summarily rejected. The Congress therefore gave a call for civil disobedience. It was however with a difference. It was in favour of individual civil disobedience as against a mass movement with a view not to embarrass the government which was already in a critical situation. The Muslim League at this time again reiterated its demand for Pakistan. In the meanwhile the war situation was deteriorating. The threat of Japanese invasion loomed large. Then came the Cripps' Offer. The offer was vague in its contents and unsound in principle. It was rejected by the Congress which treated it as a post-dated cheque on a tottering bank. Churchill, the Prime Minister of England, declared that "We mean to hold our own". The Congress

Quit India Movement and After.

decided to accept the challenge and the whole country was soon engulfed into the storm of Quit India Movement which started at the All India Congress Committee meeting in Bombay in August 1942. The Government resorted to repression by arresting the national leaders in the early hours of 9th August The leaders of Central Provinces who were in Bombay decided to return to their own province but were arrested at Malkāpūr. The movement took a violent turn, the Government resorting to indiscriminate firing and shooting. The response to the movement was spontaneous in every district of Central Provinces. In the village of Yaoli in Amarāvati district the movement developed considerable intensity. A large procession organised on 15th August took possession of the village school, post office and the Patel's record. On the news reaching Amarāvati, a large police force arrived in the village and resorted to firing, killing 10 and wounding 22 persons. This did not dampen the spirit of the people who hoisted the National Flag A pitched battle was fought between the people and the police when five were killed and thirty injured. The movement now went underground. The Hanuman Vyayam Mandal in Amarāvati took a leading part in the movement. It imparted training in drill, rifle practice and physical culture to young men. A few of its members were arrested for sabotage in the Bombay province. The dawn of 1943 did not see any abatement of the nationwide unrest. In the meanwhile the tide of war had begun to turn in favour of Allies. Lord Wavell was appointed viceroy in place of Lord Linlithgow. The war in Europe had ended with a victory over Germany. Japan too was later defeated. Hopes were now raised of a new beginning in the building of peace. A positive effort to break new ground and do something concrete to resolve the Indian tangle seemed to be afoot. In the wake of it came the Wavell Plan The leaders were released for consultations and negotiations but the attitude of Jinah not so much to acquire power to himself as to deny it to others ended in the failure of the Wavell Plan. In Great Britain conditions had taken a dramatic turn. The Conservatives were thrown out of power and Labour were elected to office. Atlee headed the cabinet as Prime Minister. He decided to send a parliamentary delegation to India to study the situation.

At the same time the viceroy announced his decision to hold elections in India. The elections gave Congress a spectacular success in the Central Provinces Legislative Assembly. On 27th April 1946 a new ministry was formed with Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla as Chief Minister. The war had left a bad legacy, which the provincial and national leaders decided to effectively tackle In these circumstances arrived the Cabinet Mission composed of Lord Pethick Lawrence, Sir Strafford Cripps and A. V. Alexander. The Congress and the League joined in the discussions. The only point of agreement was the setting up of a Constituent Assembly to draft a Constitution for India. Jinah adopted an aggressive attitude claiming for the League the right to nominate Muslims. The attitude of the League leader prevented the

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formation of an interim government. The League threatened direct action. Of course it was directed not against the British but against the Hindus in the provinces where the League had won a majority. The communal monster was let loose in those provinces resulting in widespread disorder. In Central Provinces tension prevailed and isolated cases of disturbances occurred in Amarāvati, Katni, Baḍnerā and Jabalpūr.

Independence.

Lord Wavell invited 12 leaders of his own choice to form a government on the 24th August.' A cabinet without the League was galling to Jinah who gave in and sent in October, five of his nominees but with the express intention of fighting for the cherished goal of Pakistan. In accepting his offer the game of the British became all too apparent to the Congress. It was to get the Congress out of the interim government and divide India. In the meanwhile Lord Wavell was replaced by the suave Lord Mountbatten as viceroy. The League fomented communal trouble wherever it could to discredit the Congress. It now became clear that India had to be prepared for a partition. The Congress ruefully accepted the Mountbatten Plan for the division of India with a view to hastening the departure of the British. The day of Independence dawned on 15th August 1947. In the Central Provinces, Mangaldas Pakvasa took oath as the first governor of the province in free India and the National Flag was hoisted on the historic Sitābulḍī fort in Nāgpūr. From 1947 to 1956 Amarāvati along with the other districts of Berār formed part of the Central Provinces. In 1956 it was included along with seven other districts of Vidarbha into the then Bombay State and now forms part of the State of Mahārāṣṭra.

CHAPTER 3 — THE PEOPLE

THE POPULATION OF AMRAVATI DISTRICT, according to the Census of 1961, is 1,232,780 (m. 637,861; f. 594,919), and is distributed over its six tahsils as stated below:—

TABLE No. 1

POPULATION ACCORDING TO TAHSILS, AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1961

Tahsil (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Area in Km².* (3)	Pop. per sq. mile (4)	Persons (5)	Males (6)	Females (7)
Melghāt ..	T ..	4,004·1 (1,546·0)	47	72,779	37,263	35,516
	R ..	3,988·1 (1,539·8)	46	71,441	36,511	34,930
	U ..	16·0 (6·2)	217	1,338	752	586
Acalpūr ..	T ..	1,269·1 (490·0)	427	209,189	107,970	110,219
	R ..	1,190·0 (459·8)	322	148,214	76,250	71,964
	U ..	78·2 (30·2)	2,018	60,975	31,720	29,255
Morśī ..	T ..	1,613·6 (623·0)	316	196,705	101,023	95,682
	R .	1,571·5 (606·8)	259	157,261	80,452	76,809
	U ..	42·1 (16·2)	2,429	39,444	20,571	18,873
Daryāpūr ..	T ..	1,307·9 (505·0)	345	174,397	89,902	84,495
	R ..	1,302·0 (502·7)	273	137,284	70,607	66,677
	U ..	5·9 (2·3)	16,207	37,113	19,295	17,818
Amrāvatī ..	T ..	2,157·5 (833·0)	459	382,707	200,694	182,013
	R ..	2,104·2 (812·4)	274	220,992	113,837	107,155
	U ..	53·3 (20·6)	7,850	161,715	86,857	74,858
Cāndūr .	T ..	1,797·5 (694·0)	284	197,003	101,009	195,994
	R ..	1,765·8 (681·8)	257	175,394	89,830	85,564
	U ..	31·7 (12·2)	1,767	21,609	11,179	10,430
Amrāvatī District.	T .	12,149·7 (4,691·0)	263	1,232,780	637,861	594,819
	R ..	11,922·5 (4,603·3)	198	910,586	467,487	443,099
	U ..	227·2 (87·7)	3,672	322,194	170,374	151,820

As the above table shows, the total population of 1,232,780 spread over the district area of 4,691 sq. miles (12,149.7 sq. kilometres) works out at about 263 persons to a sq. mile. Of these, 910,586 or 73.84 per cent are spread over the rural area of 4,603.3 sq. miles (11,922.559 sq. kilometres) and the remaining 322,194 or 26.16 per cent are spread over the urban area of 87.7

*Figures in brackets indicate area in sq. miles.

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sq. miles (227.2 sq. kilometres). The district with a rural urban ratio of 73.8: 26.2 stands fourth in respect of population and third in respect of size in the eight districts of the Nāgpūr Division, and similarly it ranks 17th and 12th, respectively, in the 26 districts of the Mahārāṣṭra State.

Growth of Population (1881-1901).

About the growth of the population in the district up to 1901, Mr. S. V. Fitzgerald says, "A census of the district has been taken on four occasions, for the first (1867) only provincial totals are now obtainable; but in 1881, 1891, 1901 the figures for the present area were 778,167; 849,604; and 809,499, respectively. The first decade was one of uninterrupted prosperity while the second was broken by two severe famines of 1897-98 and 1899-1900. The increase and decrease in population require no further explanation. A comparison of tahsil totals suggests nothing of importance. As we might expect, Ellicpūr and Daryāpūr being far removed not only from the railway but from any through line of communication, have decreased steadily but slowly throughout; while the other taluks increased in the first period and fell off in the second. The loss in numbers appears to have been most heavy in the Melghāṭ. where it amounted to not less than 21.7 per cent of the whole population. Largely, no doubt, this figure is due to the rigour of the famine and the extreme difficulty of administering relief in a wild and mountainous country to a backward and diffident population, but the decrease does not signify sheer loss of life. Much of it is traceable to emigration, both temporary and permanent, to the richer tracts of Nimar and Berār, and part to the absence of temporary immigrants whom the forest ordinarily attracts from neighbouring areas. Something also must be allowed for the temporary road gangs at work in 1891 who had no successors in 1901"[1].

Growth of Population 1901—1961.

The following table illustrating the growth of the population of the district during 1901-1961 compares figures ascertained at the Census of 1961 with that of the six previous censuses. In computing the figures, transfer of territory has been duly taken account of and adjustment made accordingly. To ensure comparability of growth rates over long periods mean decennial growth rates are given.

TABLE No. 2

GROWTH OF POPULATION, 1901-1961.

Year	Persons	Males	Females	Variation since last census	Mean decennial growth rate	Density
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1901	806,859	411,663	395,196	..	..	172
1911	873,012	445,739	427,173	+66,153	+7·9	186
1921	827,867	423,802	404,065	—45,145	—5·3	176
1931 . ..	941,604	485,593	456,011	+113,737	+12·9	200
1941	988,524	507,920	480,604	+46,920	+4·9	210
1951	1,031,160	526,593	504,567	+42,636	+4·2	219
1961	1,232,780	637,861	594,919	+201,620	+17·8	263

[1] Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Vol. A, 1911, pp. 107-08.

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Growth of Population, 1901-1961.

During the sixty years there was a net variation of +425,921 which means that the population of the district had increased by 52.78 per cent, the mean decennial rates of increase or decrease since 1901 being +7.9, —5.3, +12.9, +4.9, +4.2 and +17.8, respectively, for each decade.

The decade of 1901—1911 as affecting the Central Provinces can conveniently be divided into three periods consisting of, (1) the years 1901 to 1907, (2) the scarcity year 1907-1908 and (3) the remaining years 1908 to 1910.

The decade opened with the low birth rate of 29.2, the direct consequence of the debilitated condition of the people during and immediately after the famine. The reaction came immediately, and by 1904 the birth rate had risen to 53.5, and in the subsequent year to 54. From this high level it dropped slightly but in 1907 still stood as high as 52.3. The low death-rate of 1901 and 1902 is primarily due, therefore, to the low birth-rate to which factor may be added the comparative paucity of old and frail persons who had succumbed to the famine, and the consequently healthy constitution of the population. As these latter influences lost their force, the death-rate gradually rose with the birth-rate. Except in 1905 the mortality from plague was a considerable factor, but in that year infant mortality was considerably affected by the abnormal cold in the early part of the year and deaths from malarial fever and non-epidemic diseases were generally high. In 1906 a severe epidemic of cholera was especially serious in Berār and the year was generally an unhealthy one. In 1907 though cholera was not present deaths from bowel complaints were more usually numerous especially in the jowar eating tracts of the Marāṭhā plain. After six years of prosperity and progress the provinces sustained another setback in the disastrous year 1908. The failure of the harvest was occasioned directly by the premature cessation of the monsoon of 1907 and the distress that attended it was caused, not so much by a deficiency of food stocks as by the high level which the prices of foodgrains reached. However, the adverse conditions of the year were not reflected in the vital statistics. The climatic conditions were not unfavourable, and while the birth-rate (52.84) was the highest recorded for twenty-six years the death-rate fell below that of the previous year to 38.12. Cholera, plague and small-pox were less prevalent than in some previous years, and the epidemic of malaria not severe. The subsequent period is one of recovery from the depression of 1907—08. The monsoon of 1908 was on the whole satisfactory. There were scattered outbreaks of plague, small-pox, cholera and malarial fever during 1909 but the public health was on the whole good. The birth-rate (51.63) was little lower than in the previous year and the death-rate (33.09) fell considerably. The monsoon of 1909 was again favourable.

Between 1911 and 1921 the population of Amrāvatī district had declined by 45,145, but deficiency was more than repaired during the decade 1921-31. From the figures for tahsils shown below it

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will be observed that the density of population in the tahsils of Amrāvatī and Acalpūr is now greater than in any other part of the province except Nāgpūr tahsil.

Tahsil (1)	Persons per sq. mile (2)	Percentage increase since 1921 (3)	Increase of persons per sq. mile since 1921 (4)
Amrāvatī	323	19·10	52
Morśī	268	15·12	35
Cāndūr	245	8·32	19
Acalpūr	329	12·82	37
Daryāpūr	274	13·08	32
Melghāṭ	31	15·91	4

Regarding fluctuations in the population the Deputy Commissioner made the following observations: "In the last ten years mortality decreased by 89,365 while the net increase in the total population is only 113,591 or 14 per cent over the last Census. The increase is due to the fact that this decennial period was free from virulent epidemics like the terrible visitation of influenza in 1918 which affected the previous period. The difference of 24,226 between the deduced population and the final Census may be attributed partly to inaccurate or faulty figures of vital statistics, considerable immigration into the district, and the mistake committed in the Tabulation Office at the last Census in incorrectly recording the population of Amrāvatī Camp at a figure much lower than the real one".[1]

Urban Population.

The district has, according to 1961 Census, 1,981 revenue units of which 1,609 are inhabited villages, 359 uninhabited villages and 13 towns[2].

Of the towns, when classified according to population, Amrāvatī M.* (pop. 137,875 – m. 74,427 ; f. 63,448) belongs to Class I ; Acalpūr M. (pop. 36,538 – m. 18,903 ; f. 17,635) ; Baḍnerā M. (pop. 23,840 — m. 12,430 ; f. 11,410) and Añjangāñv M. (pop. 21,931 – m. 11,350 ; f. 10,581) to Class III ; Acalpūr Camp M. (pop. 17,490 – m. 9,176 ; f. 8,314), Waruḍ M. (pop. 15,888 — m. 8,332 ; f. 7,556). Daryāpūr Bānosā M. (pop. 12,261 — m. 7,945 ; f. 7,237), Dattāpūr Dhāmangāñv M. (pop. 12,261 — m. 6,341 ; f. 5,920), Morśī M. (pop. 11,946 – m. 6,214 ; f. 5,732) to

[1] Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII C. P. and Berar, Pt. I, Report p. 42.

[2] For purposes of 1961 Census, a town or an urban area is defined as a place which has (1) a Municipality, a Cantonment or Civil lines or (2) a population of 5,000 or over and at least 3/4th or more of male workers engaged in non-agricultural pursuits.

*M. Stands for municipal town.

Class IV; Cāndūr (pop. 9,348 — m. 4,838; f. 4,510) and Cāndūr Bazar M. (pop. 6,947 – m. 3,641; f. 3,306) belong to Class V and Cikhaldarā M. (pop. 1,338 — m. 752; f. 586) to class VI.

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Of these, next to Nāgpūr, Amrāvatī is the largest urban unit of the Nāgpūr division. In Acalpūr tahsil of the district two towns, namely, Acalpūr and Acalpūr Camp which are adjacent to each other constitute a town-group with a population of 54,028 (m. 28,079; f. 25,949).

The total urban population of the district as per 1961 Census is 322,194 (m. 170,374; f. 151,820). The average population per town is about 24,784; and the urban area being 87.7 sq. miles, the urban density per sq. mile is 3,672.

The urban population as distributed among the different classes of towns is as under:—

Class	Towns with population	No. of towns	Population	Population as percentage with total urban population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I ..	100,000 or above	1	137,875	42·79
II ..	50,000 to 99,999	Nil	..	..
III ..	20,000 to 49,999	3	82,309	25·54
IV ..	10,000 to 19,999	6	84,377	26·19
V ..	5,000 to 9,999	2	16,295	5·06
VI ..	Less than 5,000	1	1,338	0·42
	Total ..	13	322 194	100·00

The growth of the urban population of the district during the last sixty years as disclosed at successive censuses is as under:—

TABLE No 3

GROWTH OF URBAN POPULATION*, AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1901-61

Census	Urban population	Variation	Increase or decrease per cent	Urban population as percentage of district population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1901 ..	134,092	..	.	16·62
1911 ..	111,753	—22,339	—16.65	12·80
1921 ..	138,698	+26,945	+24·11	16·76
1931 .	164,453	+25,755	+18.56	17·46
1941 ..	211,597	+47,144	+28·66	21·40
1951 ..	263,067	+51,473	+24·32	25·51
1961 ..	322,194	+59,127	+22·47	26·13

*The figures of urban population for the past censuses have been recast according to the definition of 'urban' adopted by 1961 Census.

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The urban population of the district has increased by 140.28 per cent during the period 1901-1961, the corresponding percentages of urban growth for the period for the Mahārāṣṭra State and the Nāgpūr division being +246.96 and +171.04, respectively. As the above table of the growth of urban population reveals, except for the decade 1901—1911 which indicates a slight set-back in the growth, the urban population of the district has been increasing at a fairly steady pace. But the pattern of growth of population of individual towns in the district worked out in the table below tells quite a different story.

TABLE No. 4

Percentages of Decade Variations of Towns Since 1901, Amravati District

	Name of the town	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	Net variation 1901-1961
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1	Acalpūr (M)	−46·67	+71·82	+19·64	+10·08	+13·46	+2·31	+40·09
2	Acalpūr (Camp) (M)	−61·57	+93·53	+26·55	+13·85	+35·19	+15·97	+68·11
3	Amrāvatī (M)	+2·78	+11·97	+25·58	+30·14	+38·35	+34·11	+248·95
4	Añjangāṁv	−1·76	+8·23	+24·19	+53·46	−28·02	+71·20	+149·07
5	Baḍnerā	+2·20	+11·48	+10·46	+17·35	+32·56	+12·15	+119·54
6	Cāndūr	−20·91	+19·59	+31·53	+1·60	+11·24	+16·63	+64·00
7	Cāndūr Bazār	−26·08	+22·10	+23·44	+2·38	−6·11	+24·54	+33·39
8	Cikhalḍarā	+0·83	−4·85	−5·85	+20·62	−6·49	+36·67	+39·23
9	Daryāpūr Bānosā	+6·88	+13·27	+33·27	+35·87	+55·40	−15·95	+186·23
10	Dattāpūr Dhāmaṇgāṁv	−7·92	+80·86	+13·53	−19·48	+37·81	+12·66	+136·38
11	Morśī	−23·78	+22·03	+23·16	+11·10	−7·39	+21·92	+43·70
12	Śendurjanā	+1·28	−14·36	+38·03	−12·92	+45·75	+11·38	+70·07
13	Waruḍ	−1·25	+5·30	+34·09	+4·13	+11·84	+36·30	+121·31

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It is interesting to see how the towns in the district have fared in their classification from census to census.

TABLE No. 5

CHANGES IN CLASSIFICATION OF TOWNS FROM 1901 TO 1961

Towns	Year 1961	1951	1941	1931	1921	1911	1901
1. Cikhaldarā	VI	VI	..	..	..	..	..
2. Acalpūr Camp	IV	IV	IV	V	V	VI	IV
3. Acalpūr ..	III	III	III	III	III	IV	III
4. Cāndūr Bazār ..	V	V	V	V	VI	VI	V
5. Morśī	IV	V	IV	V	V	V	V
6. Waruḍ	IV	IV	IV	IV	V	V	V
7. Śendurjanā ..	IV	IV	V	..	V	V	V
8. Añjangāṅv ..	III	IV	IV	IV	V	V	V
9. Daryāpūr Bānosā.	IV	IV	IV	V	..	..	..
10. Amrāvatī ..	I	II	II	III	III	III	III
11. Baḍnerā ..	III	III	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV
12. Cāndūr ..	V	V	V	..	V	VI	V
13. Dattāpūr Dhāmaṇgāṅv.	IV	IV	V	V	V	VI	V
14. Karasgāṅv ..	..	V	V	V	V	V	V
15. Śirasgāṅv Kasbā.	..	V	V	V	V	V	V
16. Pāthroṭ ..	..	V	V	V	..	..	..
17. Amrāvatī Camp	..	IV	IV	IV	VI	V	V
18. Talegāṅv (Dāsasahasra).	..	..	..	..	V	V	V
19. Nerpiṅglāi ..	..	..	..	..	V	V	V
20. Puslā	..	..	..	..	VI	V	..
21. Vālgāṅv ..	..	..	..	..	VI	VI	V
22. Kholāpūr ..	..	..	..	..	VI	V	V
23. Maṅgruḷ (Dastgir).	..	..	..	..	V	V	V

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Only Amrāvatī, the district town, which has increased in its population by 248.95 per cent since 1901 could be said to have maintained a steady and vigorous trend of growth. Other towns which show a fair overall progress are notable commercial towns such as Daryāpūr Bānosā, Añjangāṅv, Dattāpūr Dhāmaṇgāṅv, Waruḍ and Baḍnerā, these having risen by 186.23. 149.7, 136.38, 121.31 and 119.54 per cent, respectively, during the last sixty years. Añjangāṅv which shows a decrease by — 28·02 per cent in 1951 has come up with a spurt of +71.20 per cent in 1961, while Daryāpūr Bānosā, which shows an increase by +55.40 in 1951, has suffered a set-back by --15.95 per cent in 1961. The growth of the rest of the towns is much below average. Places such as Karāsgāṅv, Śirasgāṅv Kasbā, Pāthroṭ and Amrāvatī Camp which were mentioned as towns in 1951 are declassified in 1961, and similar is the case of Talegāṅv (Daśasahasra). Nerpiṅglāi, Puslā, Vālgāṅv Kholāpūr and Māṅgruḷ (Dastagīr) which are declassified since 1931. Cikhaldarā, the sanatorium of Berār and a hill-station has a chequered career. The town, except for its parts indicated at the censuses of 1941 and 1961, has always been on the verge of a debacle.

Rural Population.

The rural population of the district, which, according to the Census of 1961, is 910,586 (m. 467,487 ; f. 433,099) or 73.9 per cent of the total population is distributed over 1609 (inhabited) villages and an area of 4,603.3 sq. miles (11,922.5 sq. km.) giving a rural density of 198 persons per sq. mile and an average of 566 persons per village. There are at the time 13 very large villages (pop. between 5,000—9,999), 56 large villages (pop. between 2,000—4,999), 150 average villages (pop. between 1,000—1,999), 505 small villages (pop. between 200—499) and 544 very small villages (pop. less than 200).

TABLE No. 6

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF VILLAGES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1961

Class	Population	No.	Population	Percentage in total No. of villages	Percentage of total rural population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
I	Less than 200 persons	544	48,633	33·8	5·4
II	Between 200—499 ..	505	166,715	31·5	18·3
III	Between 500—999 ..	341	239,353	21·2	26·3
IV	Between 1,000—1,999	150	199,688	9·3	21 9
V	Between 2,000—4,999	56	172,390	3·4	18·9
VI	Between 5,000—9,999	13	83,807	0 8	9·2
	Total ..	1,609	910,586	100	100

It could be seen from the above statement that in the district nearly 65 per cent of the villages covering Class I and Class II had each a population of less than 500 and absorbed nearly 24 per cent of the rural population, while nearly 30 per cent of the villages belonging to Class IV together absorbed nearly

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48 per cent of the rural population. There were 13 villages each with a population of more than 5,000.

The growth of the rural population of the district within the last sixty years, in figures adjusted to the criterion adopted by the Census of 1961 for each of the successive censuses, is as follows: —

TABLE No. 7

GROWTH OF THE RURAL POPULATION, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Census (1)	Rural population (2)	Variation (3)	Increase or decrease per cent (4)	Rural population as percentage of district population (5)
1901	672,767	..	..	83·38
1911	761,269	+88,492	+13·15	87·20
1921	689,169	—72,090	—9·47	83·24
1931	777,151	+87,982	+12·76	82·54
1941	776,927	—224	—0·23	76·60
1951	768,093	—8,834	—1·13	74·49
1961	910,586	+142,493	+18·56	73·87

Migration.

In 1961, of the total population of 12,32,780 enumerated in the district, 1,066,143 (m. 569,441; f. 496,702) or 86.48 per cent were born in the district, the remainder 166,637 (m. 68,420; f. 98,217) amounting to 13.52 per cent of the population being immigrant from outside, i.e. though born outside the district were enumerated within the district while the census was being taken. The details of the population spread over the district according to birth places were as follows: —

TABLE No. 8

MIGRANTS, AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1961

		Persons	Males	Females
(a) Born in place of enumeration ..	Rural ..	536,578	338,015	200,563
	Urban ..	178,835	103,678	75,157
(b) Born elsewhere in the district of enumeration.	Rural ..	307,057	110,886	196,171
	Urban ..	41,131	16,696	24,435
	Unclassifiable	542	166	376
(c) Born in other districts of Mahārāṣṭra.	Rural ..	90,119	32,987	57,132
	Urban ..	32,657	13,476	19,181
	Unclassifiable	157	40	117
(d) Born in India beyond the State of Mahārāṣṭra.	Rural ..	23,164	12,090	11,074
	Urban ..	11,744	5,507	6,237
	Unclassifiable	58	32	26
(e) Born in countries in Asia beyond India	..	6,629	3,387	3,242
(f) Born in Europe and elsewhere	.. ..	99	31	68
	Unclassifiable	2,010	870	1,140
Total population	..	1,232,780	637,861	594,919

As the figures in the above table indicate, in 1961 about 73.8 per cent of the total immigrants in the district were born in other districts of Mahārāṣṭra, about 21 per cent were born in India beyond the State of Mahārāṣṭra, about 4 per cent were born in countries in Asia beyond India and only 99 persons were born in Europe and other countries, 2,010 persons in the category being unclassifiable.

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Further details given by the census reveal that of the 34,966 immigrants born in India beyond the State of Mahārāṣṭra, the majority, i.e., 20,486 (m. 9,262; f. 11,224) or about 58.6 per cent, were from Madhya Pradeś; 4,406 (m. 2,507; f. 1,899) or 12.6 per cent hailed from Rājasthān, and 2,735 (m. 1,464; f. 1,271) or 7.8 per cent from Gujarāt. Other immigrants in significant numbers were: Āndra Pradeś, 1,076 (m. 445; f. 631); Mysore, 317 (m. 167; f. 150); Pañjāb, 384 (m. 255; f. 139) and Madrās, 193 (m. 92; f. 101). Of the 6,629 born in countries in Asia beyond India, it is interesting to note that 6,551 (m. 3,328; f. 3,223) are returned as born in Pākistān.

Displaced Persons.

The displaced persons in the district, in 1951, numbered 7,307 (m. 3,948; f. 3,359), of which 5,997 (m. 3,231; f. 2,766) were in the urban areas. Their town-wise distribution was as under:—

Amrāvatī 3,725; Badnerā 857; Dattāpūr-Dhāmaṇgāṅv 163; Cāndūr Railway 71; Morśī 2; Waruḍ 13; Śendurjanā 2: Acalpūr Camp 1,077; Karasgāṅv 18; Acalpūr 6; Śirasgāṅv Kasbā 4; Cāndūr Bazār 1; Pāthroṭ 30; Añjangāṅv 3; Daryāpūr Bānosā 23; and Cikhaldarā 2; Total 5,997.

The figures of the arrival of these persons in the district since 1947 till February 1951 are given in the table below:—

TABLE No. 9

DISPLACED PERSONS BY YEAR AND ARRIVAL IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

	1947		1948		1949		1950	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
(1)	(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)	
West Pakistan	320	182	3,137	2,667	316	308	26	40
East Pakistan	..	..	1	..	1	3	..	..
Districts not stated	47	46	92	109	7	4	1	..
Total	367	228	3,230	2,776	324	315	27	40

There were no arrivals in 1951.

LANGUAGE.

At the Census of 1961 as many as 89 languages and dialects are returned as mother-tongues spoken in the district. For the purpose of census enumeration mother-tongue is language

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spoken in childhood by the person's mother to the person or mainly spoken in household. A number of these mother-tongues returned at the census are arranged in the order of total speakers who number more than 100 each to claim a mother-tongue of their own. The information speaks as follows: —

(1) Marāṭhī 933,268 (m. 481,273; f. 451,995); (2) Urdu 113,183 (m. 59,315; f. 53,868); (3) Hindi 68,601 (m. 36,746; f. 31,855); (4) Korku 55,077 (m. 27,857; f. 27,150); (5) Mārvāḍi 14,973 (m. 7,955; f. 7,018); (6) Goṇḍi 14,755 (m. 7,455; f. 7,300); (7) Sindhi 9,636 (m. 5,033; f. 4,603); (8) Gujarāti 7,313 (m. 3,892; f. 3,421); (9) Telugu 2,632 (m. 1,365; f. 1,247); (10) Pārdhi 2,013 (m. 1,061; f. 952); (11) Rājasthāni 1,089 (m. 497; f. 592); (12) Nimādi 885 (m. 440; f. 445); (13) Pañjābi 688 (m. 414; f. 274); (14) Mankari 475 (m. 244; f. 231); Pardeśi 426 (m. 245; f. 181); (16) Kacchi 334 (m. 210; f. 124); (17) Lazodi 312 (m. 152; f. 160); (18) Tamiḷ 307 (m. 167; f. 140); (19) Ladhado 303 (m. 157; f. 146); (20) Beldāri 300; (m. 136; f. 164); (21) Bagheli 265 (m. 152; f. 113); (22) Lamāṇi (m. 124; f. 116); (23) Kolami 233 (m. 126; f. 107); (24) Rajputi 220 (m. 127; f. 93); (25) Malayāḷam 159 (m. 60; f. 99); (26) Koṅkaṇi 124 (m. 22; f. 102); (27) Ojhi 121 (m. 56; f. 65); (28) Kannaḍā 108 (m. 73; f. 35); and (29) Mevāri 101 (m. 62; f. 39).

As could be seen from the above account the main languages and dialects current in the district are Marāṭhī, Urdu, Hindi, Korku, Mārvāḍi, Goṇḍi and Sindhi. They all together cover more than 98 per cent of the total population of the district, the individual percentage for each being:—Marāṭhī 75.70; Urdu 9.10; Hindi 5.56; Korku 4.46; Mārvāḍi 1.21; Goṇḍi 1.19 and Sindhi 0.78.

Marāṭhī.

The principal language of the district is Marāṭhī, which is spoken by 933,268 persons, or 75.70 per cent of the population. The form of the language locally used is that known as the *Varhāḍi* (Berāri) dialect and is closely related with Marāṭhī spoken in the Deccan. Some consider it as the primary form of Marāṭhī. The difference between the two forms of speech is slight and they gradually merge into each other in Bulḍhāṇā. Long vowels, and especially final ones, are very frequently shortened and there is a strong tendency among the lower classes to substitute *o* for *ava*; thus *joḷ* for *javaḷ*, near; *uḍolā* for *uḍavilā*, squandered. An *a* is very commonly used where the Deccan form of the language has an *e*, especially in the termination of neuter bases in the suffix *ne* of the instrumental and in the future. Thus *usā sāṅgatlā*, it was said; *ḍukra*, swine; *asal*, I shall be. *I* is very often interchanged with *e* and *va*; thus *dilā*, *dellā*, given, initial *e*, is commonly pronounced as *ve*; thus *ek* and *vek*, one. The *anunāsika* is very commonly dropped, or, occasionally replaced by an *n*; *karn*, to do; *tyāmuḷa*, therefore, *tun* thou. This is, however, the case in the Deccan also. The cerebral *n* is always changed to dental *n*;

thus *koṇ*, who; *pāṇi*, water; *l* and *n* are continually interchanged in the future tenses; thus *mi mārin* and *māril*, I shall strike. V is very indistinctively sounded before *i* and *e* and is often dropped altogether. Thus *isto*, fire; is, twenty; *vel;* time. This fact accounts for occasional spellings such as *Viśvai*, God. The neuter gender is thoroughly preserved only in Marāṭhī and Gujarātī, but the distinction between it and the masculine is weakened in the Berāri dialect. *Mānsa*, men, is a neuter plural, but it is frequently combined with an adjective in the masculine gender; *cāṅgle mānsa*, good men. In verbs the second person singular has usually the form of the third person; *tu āhe*, thou art, for *tu āhes*; in the present tense *a* is substituted for *e* in the terminations of the second persons singular, and the third person plural; thus *tu mārtā*, thou strikest; *te mārtāl*, they strike. The habitual past is often used as ordinary past; thus *to mhane*, he said. In the Acalpūr tahsil two small dialects *Jhadpi* and *Koṣṭī* are spoken but they do not materially differ from the prevailing language of the district. A peculiarity of *Jhadpi* is the substitution of the cerebral *l* for a cerebral *d* when preceded by a vowel; thus *gholā*, a horse. The genuine cerebral *l* is commonly pronounced as *r;* thus *kār*, famine. A further characteristic of *Varhāḍi* (Berāri) Marāṭhī as distinguished from the pure tongue spoken further west is the large vocabulary which, in the course of Muhammedan dominion in Berār, it has borrowed from Urdu.

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Marāṭhī.

Other Languages.

Among other languages largely spoken in the district, Urdu and Hindi are the chief. It is impossible to draw any distinction between the two languages as locally spoken. Except among a few Persian scholars in Acalpūr the language is the same whichever alphabet is used, and this fact is recognised locally by the term *Musalmani bāt* which covers both tongues. Mārvāḍi which is spoken by 14,973 persons or 1.21 per cent of the population is the dialect of the trader immigrants from Rājputānā, and similar is the case of Gujarātī which is the mother-tongue of immigrants from Gujarāt. The increase of Sindhi speakers in the district who now number 9,636 is obviously due to the influx of the community displaced after partition.

Korku and Goṇḍi.

Almost the whole of the Korku population of Berār is concentrated in this district or more specifically in the Melghāṭ tahsil. The speakers of Korku in the district number 55,007 or 4.46 per cent of the population. Goṇḍi which is spoken by 14,755 persons constitutes 1.19 per cent. Korku and Goṇḍi belong to different families of aboriginal languages, the former to Munda and the latter to Dravidian stock, but both are now spoken with so large a mixture of Marāṭhī words that it has become difficult to obtain any definite knowledge about their affinities. The phonetical system in Korku is broadly the same as in Santāli. There are two genders to distinguish animate beings and inanimate objects; however, they are often confounded. There are three numbers, the singular, the dual and the plural. Number is only marked in the case of animate

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nouns. The suffix of the dual is *king* and that of the plural *ku*. It is interesting to see that the dual is used to denote a married wife as in Santaḷi, e.g., *Tumta-king*, that is, Tumta's wife. Adjectives do not change for gender, number or case. Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative. It is a well-known fact that the Munda verb is not a verb in the strictest sense of the word. Every form can be used as a noun, an adjective and a verb. The principal dialects have a separate particle, the so-called categorical *a*, by simple adding which any word may be turned into a verb *dal*, strike. It can also be used as a noun or an adjective; thus *dal-ket-ko*, those who struck; *dal-ket-har*.

A mother-tongue pattern comparing the censuses of 1951 and 1961 in terms of the most widely spoken languages in the district is indicated in the following table:—

TABLE No 10

A COMPARATIVE MOTHER-TONGUE PATTERN IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Mother-tongue	Speakers per 10,000 of population	
	1951	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)
Marathī	7,793	7,570
Urdu	768	910
Hindi	521	556
Korku	364	446
Mārwāri	81	121
Goṇḍi	162	119
Sindhi	71	78
Gujarātī	65	59
	9,825	9,859

As the table reveals except for Marāṭhī, Goṇḍi and Gujarātī mother-tongue speakers who have decreased by 2.8, 26.5 and 9.2, respectively. all the other mother-tongue speakers, namely, Urdu. Hindi, Korku, Mārvāḍi and Sindhi have increased by 18.5, 6.7, 22.5, 49.4 and 9.8, respectively.

Bilingualism.

In Amravatī district 171,518 (m. 117,258; f. 54,260) persons or 13.1 per cent of the total population were returned as speaking a language subsidiary to the mother-tongue at 1961 Census. Of these, the males consisted 18.3 per cent and the females 9.1 per cent of their respective population.

TABLE No. 11

BILINGUALISM, DISTRICT AMRAVATI, 1961

Mother-tongue		Total speakers	Subsidiary language speakers	Marāṭhī	Urdu	Subsidiary language		Mārwāḍi	Goṇḍi	Sindhi
						Hindi	Korku			
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Marāṭhī	M.	481,273	53,853	..	55	43,275	53	60	134	1
	F.	451,995	14,802	..	13	12,134	42	43	122	..
Urdu	M.	59,315	14,314	7,845	..	5,433	4	4	..	1
	F.	53,868	5,929	2,591	..	2,847	..	6	..	..
Hindi	M.	36,746	14,081	11,362	203	..	1,249	64	77	8
	F.	31,855	9,221	7,646	84	..	1,059	74	45	6
Korku	M.	27,857	15,233	531	..	14,679	..	..	16	..
	F.	27,150	9,540	314	..	9,210	..	..	8	..
Mārwāḍi	M.	7,955	5,049	2,512	..	2,307	..	..	..	..
	F.	7,018	3,545	1,952	1	1,566	..	..	..	..
Goṇḍi	M.	7,455	4,839	3,471	1	1,206	153	..	..	..
	F.	7,300	4,376	3,275	3	915	183	..	..	..
Sindhi	M.	5,033	2,536	61	23	2,369	..	..	..	..
	F.	4,603	1,033	46	9	915	..	..	..	..

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Bilingualism.

It will be seen from the table that the total Marāṭhī mother-tongue speakers 68,655 or about 7.3 per cent were conversant with a subsidiary language. Out of them about ·81 per cent knew Hindi, and of these Hindi bilinguists about 78 per cent were males. Of the Urdu mother-tongue speakers 20,243 or about 18 per cent claimed that they knew a subsidiary language of whom about 77 per cent were males. Of these Urdu bilinguists, 51.5 per cent knew Marāṭhī and 40.8 per cent Hindi. Of the Hindi mother-tongue speakers about 34 per cent were bilinguists of whom 82 per cent knew Marāṭhī and about 10 per cent Korku. Of the Korku mother-tongue speakers 43.2 per cent were bilinguists; 95.2 per cent of these knew Hindi, only 3.4 per cent knowing Marāṭhī. The Mārvāḍi mother-tongue speakers had among them 57.4 per cent bilinguists of whom about 52 per cent knew Marāṭhī and the remaining knew Hindi. 62.4 per cent of the Goṇḍi mother-tongue speakers knew a subsidiary language of whom 73.2 per cent knew Marāṭhī, 23 per cent Hindi and 3.6 per cent Korku. The Sindhi mother-tongue speakers had 37 per cent as bilinguists who mainly knew Hindi.

RELIGION.

Hindu religion includes the Vedic worship of the great forces of nature. It also preaches the doctrine of *Karma* and believes in the *Paurāṇic Avatāras*. The aboriginals with their totems still have strong faith in animistic ways of life and also find their own place in the Hindu system of religion. All the individuals, the families, castes and sub-castes, worship the omnipotent and omnipresent Almighty in any of His manifestations according to their different traditions. However, the impact of the western education, the modern concepts of social equality, justice, and individual freedom has changed the outlook of the rising generation. With the spirit of questioning generated by the emphasis on reason in modern education, and in the context of the tremendous tempo of the progressive age, many of the old social and religious customs and practices appeared to be insipid and contrary to the new values. Public opinion gradually underwent a change which was reflected in the new attitude to religion.

According to the Census of 1961 the number of persons following the major religions in the district was as follows:—

TABLE No. 12

POPULATION BY RELIGION IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1961

Religion	Total Rural Urban	Persons	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Buddhists ..	T ..	176,069	88,547	87,522
	R ..	157,476	78,159	78,317
	U ..	18,593	9,388	9,205

TABLE No. 12—*cont.*

Religion (1)	Total Rural Urban (2)	Persons (3)	Males (4)	Females (5)
Christians	T	4,214	2,197	2,027
	R	2,562	1,350	1,212
	U	1,652	837	815
Hindus*..	T	925,090	480,406	444,684
	R	687,822	354,305	333,517
	U	237,268	126,101	111,167
Jains	T	6,846	3,567	3,279
	R	2,298	1,187	1,111
	U	4,548	2,380	2,168
Muslims..	T	119,882	62,761	57,121
	R	60,238	31,380	28,858
	U	59,644	31,381	28,263
Sikhs	T	537	320	217
	R	130	74	56
	U	407	246	161
Other Religious Persuasions ..	T	134	68	66
Religion not stated	T	8	5	3
Total Population		1,232,780	637,861	594,919
Rural		910,586	467,487	443,099
Urban		322,194	170,374	151,820

CASTES.

The groups known as castes, with varying degrees of respectability and circles of social intercourse into which the Hindu society is divided, are quite famous. In recent decades, however, the rigidity of the caste barriers has abated considerably, and caste as an institution perpetuating social exclusiveness has lost its former significance. Moreover the necessity or advisability of retaining a return of caste at the Census is now being questioned. And with a view to discourage caste consciousness there has been no caste-wise enumeration since the Census of 1951. However, the hold of caste on Indian life is still found to be so deep that a working knowledge of the important caste groups in the district may be considered useful on the part of any sincere student of the Indian society.

* This includes persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes who numbered 48,702 (m. 24,846: f. 23,856) and 54,891 (m. 27,765; f. 37.116). respectively and formed a part of the Hindus.

These figures of religion show that the Buddhists constitute 14.28 per cent of the district population; the Christians 0.34 per cent, the Hindus (including the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes) 75.04 per cent, the Jains 0.55 per cent, and the Muslims 9.72 per cent. The Sikhs number 537 (m. 320; f. 217) and persons of 'other religious persuasions' (who may be zoroastrians) 134 (m 66; f. 68). Of the Hindus 5.24 per cent belong to the Scheduled Castes and 5.93 per cent to the Scheduled Tribes.

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In 1901 castes were classified according to their social precedence, but in 1911 and 1921 the procedure of 1891 was followed according to which the traditional occupation of the caste was the basis of classification. An analysis of the caste groups in the district according to the traditional division of occupation is given in the following pages.

Classified according to their traditional occupation the castes in the district, as enumerated in the Census of 1931, were found in their group strength as follows:—

Group No. I: Land Holders:—Rajput, 13,667 (m. 7,396; f. 6,271); Marāṭhā, 30,081 (m. 15,524; f. 14,557). Total 43,748.

Group No. II: Cultivators (including growers of special products):—Kuṇbī, 119,818 (m. 102,327; f. 97,491); Māḷi, 76,166 (m. 38,431; f. 37,735); Barāi, 14,002 (m. 7,101; f. 6,901), Lodhi, 1,316 (m. 685; f. 631); Kirar, 1,024 (m. 532; f. 492); Kacchi, 452 (m. 349; f. 103); Māna, 434 (m. 212; f. 222); Jāt, 397 (m. 255; f. 142); Kurmi, Bhoyar, Rajbhor, Kohli and Kir, 230 (m. 118; f. 112). Total 293,439.

Group No. III: Labourers:— Rajjhar or Lajjhar, 1,730 (m. 834; f. 896); Bedar, 1,118 (m. 586; f. 532); Mala, 106 (m. 64; f. 42); Rajvar or Movar, 22 (m. 14; f. 8). Total 2,976.

Group No. IV: Forest and Hill tribes:—Korku, 38,827 (m. 19,070; f. 19,757); Goṇd, 24,079 (m. 12,008; f. 12,071); Koḷi, 8,211 (m. 4,170; f. 4,041); Halba, 2,201 (m. 1,066; f. 1,135); Pardhān, 897 (m. 450; f. 447); Binjhvar, 130 (m. 66; f. 64). Total 74,345

Group No. V: Graziers and Dairymen:—Dhangar, 19,277 (m. 9,910; f. 9.367); Govari, 12,317 (m. 6,167; f. 6,150): Ahir, 6,284 (m. 3,446; f. 2,838); Gotur, 1,905 (m. 953; f. 952); Hatgar, 439 (m. 231; f. 208); and Gadaria, 100 (m. 71; f. 29). Total 40,322.

Group No. VI: Fishermen, Boatmen and Palkhi-bearers:— Dhimār, 12,547 (m. 6,509; f. 6,038); Kahar, 419 (m. 249; f. 170); and Kevat, 61 (m. 47; f. 14). Total 13,027.

Group No. VII: Hunters and Fowlers:—Pārdhis, 2,849 (m. 1,455; f. 1,394); and Bahelia, 57 (m. 35; f. 22). Total 2,906.

Group No. VIII: Priests and Devotees.—Brāhmaṇ, 24,331 (m. 13,915; f. 10,416); Gosāin, 3,242 (m. 1,838; f. 1,404); Fakir, 2,133 (m. 1,078; f. 1,057); Garpagari, 1,437 (m. 756; f. 681); Jogi, 808 (m. 416; f. 392); Bairāgi, 540 (m. 308; f. 232); Gondhaḷi, 364 (m. 198; f. 166); and Jaṅgam, 319 (m. 164; f. 155). Total 33,176.

Group No. IX: Temple servants, *X* and *XI*: Geneologists, Bards and Astrologers, *XII*: Writers, and *XIII*: Musicians. Singers, Dancers. Mimes and Singers were represented in the district sometimes by individual castes. The Guravs who numbered 2,390 (m. 1,655; f. 1,635) were originally servants of the temples of Mahādeo in the Marāṭhā country. The

Bhāts, 2,231 (m. 1,213; f. 1,018) or Raos were known in Berār as Ṭhākurs. Many castes had their own Bhāṭs. Every caste-Bhāṭ ate at the hands of the caste of which he was the geneologist, but the caste would not take food from his hands. Bhāṭs were also bards and were doubtless the repositories of a good deal of oral tradition and folklore. The Jośi, 434 (m. 221; f. 213) derived his name from *Jyotiṣ* or astrology; but Jośis now mostly made a living by acceptance of gifts for the propitiation of the evil planet Saturn. It was doubtful whether the Census figures for Jośis were correct, as in Berār a village priest was usually designated as Jośi who was really a Brāhmaṇ, and the so-called Brāhmaṇ Jośis may have been included in the Jośi caste. The Kāyasth 399 (m. 203; f. 196) was the writer *par excellence*, the corresponding caste in the Marāṭhā districts being that of the Prabhus Bidurs, 3,521 (m. 1,829; f. 1,692) were said to be the illegitimate descendants of Brāhmaṇs of the Marāṭhā country, and had also taken to clerical occupations.

Group No. XIV: Traders and Pedlars:—There were in the district Bania, 16,530 (m. 8,631; f. 7,899): Khatri, 844 (m. 458; f. 386); Bohrā, 653 (m. 390; f. 263), and Komṭi, 151 (m. 80; f. 71). Total 18,178.

Group No. XV: Carriers by Pack Animals:—In the district this group consisted of Bañjārā, 3,059 (m. 1,598; f. 1,461); and Vañjāri, 322 (m. 167; f. 155). Total 3,381.

Group No. XVIII: Weavers, Carders and Dyers. A number of castes represented the group, but those that were located in the district were mainly: Mehra or Mahār, 130,272 (m. 64,329; f. 65,943); Koṣṭi, 7,981 (m. 4,207; f. 3,774); Bahna, 3,606 (m. 1,893; f. 1,713); Sāḷi, 2,748 (m. 1,416; f. 1,332); Raṅgārı, 2,699 (m. 1,351; f. 1,348); Balahi, 1,195 (m. 568; f. 627); Kaṛi, 540 (m. 312; f 228), Julahā, 302 (m. 158; f. 144): Patva, 274 (m. 144; f. 130), Cippa, 181 (m. 94; f. 87); and Citāri, 92 (m. 52; f. 40). Total 149,890.

A number of other castes in the district belonged to distinct occupational groups. *Group No. XIX*, consisted of the Darjis, 4,168 (m. 2,122; f. 2,046), who were tailors. This occupation not being derogatory was taken up by any caste for purpose of profit. The Barhāis or carpenters, 9,998 (m. 5,197; f. 4,801), of *Group No. XX*, some times combined their work with that of the Lohārs or blacksmiths and the latter reciprocated. *Group No. XXI*, Masons, was represented in the district by Ṭakāris, 2,189 (m. 1,104; f. 1,085), who were really grinding stone menders but occasionally worked as masons. *Group XXII*, Potters: Kumbhārs, 6,886 (m. 3,873; f. 3,013).

Group No. XXIII: Glass and Lac workers, consisted of Kacerā, 204 (m. 84; f. 120); and Lakherā, 61 (m. 30; f. 31). Blacksmiths or Lohārs, who formed *Group No. XXIV*, numbered 5,514 (m. 2,929; f. 2,585) in the district. The Sonārs numbering 10,037 (m. 5,149; f. 4,888), under *Group No. XXV*, Gold and Silver Smiths belonged to several endogamous divisions. The allied *Group No. XXVI*, Brass and Copper Smiths,

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consisted of Kāsār, 1,814 (m. 966; f. 848); Tamerā, 209 (m. 102; f. 107); and Otāri, 423 (m. 182; f. 241). *Group No. XXVII,* Confectioners and Parchers, included Bhadbhunja, 438 (m. 253; f. 185); and Halvāi, 65 (m. 40; f. 25). *Group No. XXVIII,* Oil Pressers, consisted of Telis, 30,680 (m. 15,715; f. 14,965). *Group No. XXIX,* Toddy Drawers and Distillers; Kalars, 7,947 (m. 4,067; f. 3,880). *Group No. XXX,* Butchers; Khāṭik, 3,591 (m. 1,825; f. 1,766); and Kasāi, 718 (m. 377; f. 341). Total 4,309. *Group No. XXXI,* Leather Workers; Camār, 7,767 (m. 3,946; f. 3,821); Ḍhor, 1,533 (m. 774; f. 759); Moci, 477 (m. 201; f. 276); and Juigar 315 (m. 169; f. 146).

The other groups consisted of *Group No. XXXII,* Basket makers and Mat-makers: Basor 948 (m. 455; f. 494); and *Group No. XXXIII,* Earth, Salt Workers and Quarriers: Beldār, 3,295 (m. 1,652; f. 1,643); and Vaḍḍār, 746 (m. 382; f. 364), *Group No. XXXV,* Village Watchmen and Menials: Khangar 105 (m. 50; f. 55); and Dahayat 12 (m. 6: f. 6); *Group No. XXXVI;* Sweepers: Mehtar, 896 (m. 455; f. 441).

There could not be any returns in the *Group No. XXXIV,* Domestic Servants, as many in the class who served as domestic servants were classed in their traditional occupation, e.g., Dhimārs.

The Amrāvatī District Gazetteer*, published in 1911, has given a very vivid description of various castes in the district. The value of this analytical description has in no way dwindled due to the mere passage of time. From the sociological point of view the description is of immense interest. A few passages from the old edition are given below.

Brāhmaṇ.

"Brāhmaṇs number about 21,500 persons or 3 per cent of the population. Though not very strong numerically yet they are by far the most influential caste owing to their hereditary priestly influence. Of the Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs the majority are Deśasthas, although a considerable minority belong to the Koṅkaṇastha and Karhāḍā divisions. The word Deśastha literally means residents of the country and the name is given to the Brāhmaṇs of that part of the Deccan which lies above the Ghāṭs. Most of the Deśasthas pursue secular professions and are writers, accountants, merchants, etc. The posts of village *paṭvāris* are almost monopolised by them. As their name indicates, the original home of the Koṅkaṇasthas is the Koṅkaṇ or the narrow strip of low-lying country from Broach to Ratnāgirī, between the Ghāṭs and the sea. The immigration of Koṅkaṇasthas into Berār probably dates from the time of the Koṅkaṇastha Peśve (1714—1818) whom they followed as accountants, clerks, etc. They are also known as Citpāvan or Cittapāvan, the story being told that Paraśurām, enraged at the ungrateful conduct of the Brāhmaṇs of his day who refused to

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Vol. A, 1911.

attend the *śrāddha* of his father, provided himself with Brāhmaṇs by restoring to life some corpses which he found floating on the sea off the Koṅkaṇ coast after a shipwreck. The story is indignantly denied by many modern Citpāvans as it is thought that the part played in it by a corpse is an insult to the dignity of the caste; but the fair, sometimes almost ruddy complexions, blue eyes, and light hair which are their distinguishing features, seem to point to some such arrival from overseas. The Karhāḍa Brāhmaṇs are so called from Karhāḍ, a town at the meeting of the Kriṣṇā and Koynā rivers. Another suggested explanation of the name is that it refers to the mountain country; the high summits of which separate the home of the Koṅkaṇastha Brāhmaṇs on one side from the table-land of the Deśasthas on the other. The Karhāḍas are charged with having in former times offered human sacrifice, and even the murder of Brāhmaṇs to propitiate their deities. The accusation is said by them to be an invention of some Deśastha Brāhmaṇ. Whatever room there may be for comment on the religion of the Karhāḍas, they are quite equal to the Koṅkaṇasthas and Deśasthas in every other respect. Besides the above three divisions which in practice are endogamous, the Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs are divided into Rigvedis and Yajurvedis who eat together but do not intermarry. The Yajurvedis are the followers of the white Yajus and are further subdivided into two branches, called Kaṇvas and Mādhyandinas. The Kaṇvas are so called on account of their adopting the Kaṇva recension of the white Yajus. The Mādhyandinas derive their name in the same manner from the Mādhvandina branch of the white Yajus. They attach great importance to the recital of the *Sandhyā* prayer at noon, i.e., after 11 a.m. But the Rigvedis might perform the mid-day prayer even at sunrise. As a class the Marāṭhā Brāhmaṇs are well-to-do, their abilities leading them to success in almost every profession. Hindustāni (or Pardesi) and Gujarātī Brāhmaṇs are also met with The former are generally employed as office peons or in similar unskilled work, and the latter as traders. In the villages the Brāhmaṇ's exclusiveness is naturally modified. Brāhmaṇ *patvaris* are more or less subordinate to Kuṇbī *patels*, and they with the school-masters and others in small villages, if they wish for any but the most limited society, must seek it among castes considerably lower than their own."

Rajput.

"Rajputs number 12,672 persons and constitute 2 per cent of the population. The Rajputs of Berār may be divided into two classes, (1) those who are originally of foreign origin having come here before the Assignment to take military service with one or other of the petty powers who infested the land; and (2) those who have assumed the name of Rajputs, but are really of humbler birth. Bais Rajputs occur in every taluk, being most plentiful in Cāndūr and Daryāpūr. Their original home is Baiswara in Oudh. The Rāthor Rajputs are most numerous in the Amraoti and Ellicpūr taluks, and come chiefly from Mārvār. The Rajputs are mainly engaged in cultivation."

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Vani or Bania.

"The Vāṇi or Bania castes, like the Rajputs, are chiefly of foreign origin. They number 16,264 or 2 per cent of the population. Vāṇis, being strangers in the land, are generally distinguished among Berāris by the name of their country or their sect. Hence such entries in the Census Lists as Mārvāri or Gujarāti on the one hand; and Liṅgāyat or Jain on the other. The Vāṇis are the chief traders in Berār. They are as a class respectable members of society and a large amount of commercial wealth passes through their hands."

Kunbi.

"The Kuṇbīs number 193,255 or 24 per cent, of the population. They are overwhelmingly the most important caste in the district, and the Kuṇbī has come to be the accepted type of all Marāṭhā cultivators. He is in the apt words of the Nāgpūr Settlement Report "a most patient plodding mortal with a catlike affection for his land". And the majority of agricultural holdings are still in possession of Kuṇbīs. Their husbandry though careful and good of its kind is extremely conservative and they are more chary than most castes of accepting new ideas. One may occasionally find a wealthy Kuṇbī who has taken to moneylending, and they are seldom seen in complete poverty, even though always ready to resort to the moneylender.

Though now a peaceable folk in old days the armies of Śivājī and of the Peśvas and Bhonslas were recruited mainly from Kuṇbīs and similar castes who took to a warlike life, and that this is the origin of the Marāṭhā caste. However this may be, a similar process is even now going on for the Tiroḷes, the highest division of Kuṇbīs, to which most of the Deśmukhs and many of the leading *paṭels* belong, are to-day on the borderland between the two castes. One rung of the ladder of social advancement is to provide oneself with a Rajput origin, and the Marāṭhās accordingly claim to be Kṣattriyas while the Tiroḷes derive their name from Therol in Rājputānā. In religion the Kuṇbī is a worshipper of Māroti, Mahādev, Gaṇpati and Viṭhobā, but especially of the first-named. He is also a firm believer in the efficacy of omens and of all manner of forms and ceremonies and goes in great dread of ghosts".

Gaoli.

"The Gaoḷis number 16,353 and constitute 2 per cent of the population. The Liṅgāyat Gaoḷis are found in the taluks of Amrāoti, Morśī, Ellicpūr and Cāndūr and are subdivided into Nagarkar and Vazarkar divisions. Among the Vazarkar Gaolis the bridegroom is brought to the village of the bride and married there. It is customary among them to marry some twenty or thirty couples under one *māṇḍava* at one and the same time, possibly from motives of economy."

Dhangar.

"Dhangars number 17,826 persons constituting 2 per cent of the population. They are hereditary herdsmen corresponding to the Gadarias of Northern India, and ranking socially below Kuṇbīs, Gaoḷis, and similar castes. Their highest subcaste known as Baṅgi Dhangars have now developed into a separate caste called Hatkar or Hatgar. The *Ain-i-Akbari* calls them 'an indigenous race for the most part proud and refractory'. They

were in military employ and therefore claim a higher status than Dhangars. At a Dhangar marriage a Brāhmaṇ officiates and the ceremony is performed after the Marāṭhā ritual. On the third day of marriage they boil wheat and serve it to the assembled guests. This is called *Pañcgat*. They bury their dead with leaves of *akāo* plant strewn over the face of the corpse, but those who die in a specially honourable way, a woman in childbirth or a man in battle, are burned after the manner of high-caste Hindus. Each caste fellow is expected to bring some cooked food to the mourner's house, and when all have assembled they will take food with him. On the eleventh day a caste feast is given. The mourner seats himself on the ground and each guest should drop a pice in his lap. The pice are counted and the number of guests is roughly ascertained as the basis for preparing food. This ceremony is called *Vahti*. They sometimes claim Khaṇḍoba or Khaṇḍe Rāo, the chief who overcame Malla and Mani, the oppressors of the Brāhmaṇs, as their caste-man and progenitor. They have a special ceremony called *Vari* in the month of *Pauṣ*. The image of Khaṇḍobā is placed in a brass plate and the Dhangars all in a body beg alms from other people of their village. Cakes are prepared from flour of the grain received in alms and the spirit of Khaṇḍobā takes possession of one of them who exhibits the usual signs of demonolepsy especially that of unnatural strength. The caste has a tribal council headed by an elder called *Mehtar*. At the time of marriage a mark should be affixed to his forehead as a token of respect. He is entitled to receive a sum of three or four annas at every marriage and should give in return a caste feast once a year. It will be a pollution for him to sit on a camel or a creaking swing or to wear shoes which may touch the ankles of his feet. This caste is traditionally held to be most successful in the education of its watch dogs The pups are taken from the mother and suckled by an ewe, which at first is held down and soon takes to them as to its own offspring. The dog when grown never leaves the flock, nor does it shrink from defending it against the attack of any animal".

Korku.

"The Korkus are of Kolarian origin and are strongly represented in the district. In language and general type they are said to be identical with the Kols and Santāls; but the habits of the Korkus of the Tapī valley, says Forsyth, are a great advance on those of the Korkus inhabiting the Mahādeo hills further east. The Korkus who first came to Berār found the Nihāls in possession of the Melghaṭ hills. Gradually the latter caste lost their power and became the village drudges of the former. The Nihāls are now fast losing their language also: the younger generation speak Korku or Marāṭhī. The Nihāls were once much addicted to cattle lifting, but they have held this propensity in check of late years. The Korkus are divided into the following classes: Mavāsi or Bhowavaya, Bavaria, Ruma and Bendoyas. The term Movas signifies the troubled country[1],

[1] The derivation is not by any means certain. a less complimentary theory connects the word with the mahu tree whose flowers form an item of Korku food.

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and the subcaste ranks the highest probably on account of the gentlemanly calling of armed robbery formerly practised by its members. The names of the other subcastes also seem to be territorial but their exact meanings are not known. They have also *gotras*, the story running that their ancestors were assembled by the gods and that to each was assigned the name of the object-animal, tree or whatever it might be near which he took up his position. Another tale is that the Korkus were defeated in a great battle and that the objects in question are those behind which they succeeded in hiding themselves. In either case the legend is a typical example of the way in which totemistic clan names have been clothed in a Hindu respectability. "I believe", says Mr. Ballantyne, once a Forest Officer in the Meḷghāṭ, "that the Korkus were originally worshippers of the sun and moon; their most solemn oath is by the sun and in the act of worship they turn their faces towards it, and point to it with their hands. But now-a-days their whole creed is so much tainted with Hinduism that their original beliefs are well nigh lost". In support of this opinion it may be mentioned that the Korku word for god (*Gomaj*) is also the word for sun and moon; and that on the side of their memorials to the dead which faces east they invariably carve a representation of those bodies. Mr. Ward, indeed, who spent many years as a missionary in these hills and was one of the few who have made a detailed study of their inhabitants, is far more categorical. "Their chief objects of worship", he says, "are the sun and moon whom they regard as male and female deities. But they do not, so far as I have been able to learn, offer regular or special worship to those celestial bodies. Once in a great while, however, in the month of April, a goat or a fowl is sacrificed to the sun while the face is turned to the east". "As a whole", he continues, "their particular hopes and fears seem to lie in the direction of the local deities nearer at hand. They build no temples nor fashion images, after the manner of the Hindus but daub red paint on certain stones in or about the village and the adjacent forest, and endow them with the names of their divinities. Thus *Doṅgar gomaj*, god of the hills and forests; *Kulla gomaj*, god of the tiger; *Mutiyā Gomaj*, special village god or penates; *Hardoli gomaj*, the cholera god; *Mātā gomaj*, goddess of small-pox; besides *Pañci gomaj*, *Kur gomaj* and the Hindu god Hanuman". Many of those are but Korku names for deities that have been adopted by the low caste Hindu in other parts of India; *Kulla gomaj* for instance is simply *Vāgh deo*; and *Mātā gomaj*, *Marāi Mātā*; the Hindu god Mahādeo tends more and more to fill the principal place in the Korku theogony. As a rule the Korkus bury their dead. "A year or so after the decease of a person of note, a ceremony called *sidoli* is performed which much resembles the Irish custom of waking the dead. A memorial post is carved the next day and planted under a mahua tree where those in memory of the same kin or *got* (*gotra*) have been planted before. These posts are called in the Korku language *muṇḍā*". With the exception of the man on horseback

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which may be an emblem of the sun, Mr. Ward finds no special significance in any of these figures. It is believed, however, that they may be a record by totems of the family and ancestry of the deceased. The post itself is suggestive of phallic worship, and the rude cut of the sun and moon is not without its significance in this connection. The Korkus are also worshippers of the dead (ancestors—*Pitar*) and the ceremony above referred to as *sidoli* appears to be one also known by the name of *phuljāgni*[1] and to be intended more as a species of ghost-laying than anything else. The ceremony has all the usual accompaniments of primitive necromancy, the elaborate formalism by which, for instance, five bits of bamboo or five crabs' legs represent the dead man's limbs. It probably varies very much from village to village according to the fancy of the local Bhumka and dancing and intoxication are the only unaltering elements in the performance. The following account[2] of the Korkus by Mr. P. S. Agnihotri, formerly Clerk of Court in Ellicpūr, is sufficiently interesting to be quoted at length. "Their language is Korku but Hindi is also common among them. Their villages are built in two equal rows flanking a straight street, and are placed half a mile or more away from water. They wear only a *dhoti*, and a rag on the head; and the poorest keep a fire in their houses beside which, when they have cooked and eaten their food, they lie down to sleep at night, wearing nothing but a *langoti*; their women also wear such *langotis* and sleep close to the fire. In a large family, when the food is ready, they sometimes divide it into equal portions; but they have a custom by which it is placed in a heap in their midst, and they sit with their backs to it each reaching out a hand behind him for what he requires without looking at it. They are flesh-eaters but will not touch cocks or sparrows; in spite of the uncertainty of their food they are stronger and stouter than the people of the plains. They do not, like the Berāris, protect their crops with a fencing of thorns, or by throwing stones from a sling; but camp out in the open till the corn is ready for use. They surround their fields with bamboo matting and think to frighten away wild beasts with scare-crows of rags and wood placed at intervals. They build high platforms in their fields with roofs called *malās* and in these they live, lighting a fire there and cooking their food. In the middle of the field, two logs of wood tied together with small pieces of bamboo between them, and worked by a rope, are made to give a clapping noise and to scare wild animals. After the threshing is over they take the corn to villages and give it to the moneylenders in return for money borrowed at the rate of 24 or 32 seers of corn to the rupee (i.e., 100 to 150 per cent interest). Sometimes this money had only been lent two months before the harvest; and thus the moneylenders get the whole crop into their possession and the Korku seldom keeps more than a two or three months supply. Few Korkus are rich and those few in stores of corn rather

[1] The word is connected with the verb *jagne*, to wake.
[2] Freely translated from the Marathi.

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than in money. Their system of heaping *kaḍbā*, etc., in the fields differs from that of Berār where it is stacked close to the village and a thorn hedge put round it; the Korkus store it on a platform in their fields resembling a *malā*. Outside the village one may find a hut with some painted logs thrust in the ground; these are their gods. They worship also the goddess Devi, and offer to her rice, lemons and wild flowers with cooked meat; a goat is her sacrifice and at night also in their houses they worship her. On the third day of the month *Āśvin* a great festival begins. They assemble together by night, and some dance and sing. At holiday time the people of the village assemble together and dance, singing Korku songs, beating on a drum called *ḍholki* and blowing a pipe called *puṅgi*. They wear each two or three brass anklets on their feet and to the clang of these they keep step. The *ḍholki* beater stands in the midst and they dance round. Another man stands by playing the *puṅgi* and both men and women adorn themselves with bunches of wild flowers in their ears. As in Berār they have a custom by which the bridegroom lives with and works for his father-in-law; and such a bridegroom is called *lamjhanā*. After a fixed period, sometimes twelve years, is over, he marries the woman for whom he has worked. If a man marries a woman without serving for her then he or his father gives to her father an ox as well as a sum of money agreed upon. This gift is called *pejā*.

Among them the village priest is expected to ward off and cure diseases, and to defend them from wild beasts. If a tiger comes near the place, he indents on the villagers for a he-buffalo, or a cock, and a few small iron nails. At midnight he goes round the village boundary, with one hand leading the animal, and in the other carrying the nails. These he drives into the ground, and sacrifices the victim. This rite ought, he considers, to keep off the tiger for a whole year. The power of magic they hold to be imparted by a tree of knowledge. The aspirant takes counsel with other wise men and then bathes, a very unusual observance among Korkus. After this he wanders alone in the jungle for three days and nights plucking leaves from the trees with his teeth, after the manner of a goat. Among the trees are serpents; if he fears them, or puts forth his hand, he will surely die. But if his faith and courage fail not, he will light upon the tree of knowledge. Then he returns to his village, bathes and offers a goat. Thus until his teeth drop out he becomes endowed with the power of magic".

Mahār, Māṅg and Cāmbhār.

"The old local religion as might be expected survives more markedly among these castes than among those higher in the social scale. The auspicious day for marriage is ascertained from the village Jośi, a Brāhmaṇ who receives a fee for his information. And although some peculiar custom may here and there be kept up, as when a Mahār bridegroom drops a ring into a bowl of water, which the bride picks out and wears, or when a Cāmbhār bride twice or thrice opens a small box which her future spouse each time smartly shuts again, still the ceremony

is conducted as far as possible according to the ordinary Hindu rites. Furthermore as the Jośi will not come to the marriage it can only take place on the same day as a marriage among some higher castes, so that the Mahārs may watch for the priest's signal and may know the exact moment at which the dividing cloth (*antarpāṭ*) should be withdrawn, and the garments of the bride and bridegroom knotted, while the bystanders clap their hands and pelt the couple with coloured grain".

"Mahārs or Dheḍs number 105,300 persons constituting 14 per cent of the population. They are divided, they say, into "twelve and a half" subcastes, each of which is endogamous. Of these, one division is called Somas or Somavanśi, and claims to have taken part with the Paṇḍavas against the Kauravas in the war of Mahābhārata and subsequently to have settled in the Mahārāṣtra. After the Somas Mahārs other important divisions are the Lādwan or Lādsi, the Andhavan, the Bāone and the Kosre. The word Bāone is sometimes said to be a corruption of Bhavāni, and the sept claims to rank highest among the caste. As a *balutedār* on the village establishment the Mahār holds a post of great importance to himself and convenience to the village. The knowledge gained in his official position renders him a referee on matters affecting the village boundaries and customs. To the *paṭel, paṭvari* and the big men of the village he acts often as a personal servant and errand runner, for a small cultivator he will also at times carry a torch or act as escort. To the latter class however the Mahār is an indirect rather than a direct boon, inasmuch as his presence saves them from the liability of being called upon to render the *paṭel* or the village personal service. For the services which he thus renders as *pāndyavār* the Mahār receives from the cultivators certain grain dues. When the cut juari is lying in the field the Mahārs go round and beg for a measure of the ears, *bhik paili*. But the regular payment is made when the grain has been threshed. The village Mahārs take a prominent position in the *Dasarā* sacrifice.

The Lādsi Mahārs also called Bunkars in the Ellicpūr tahsil, are worshippers of Śāh Dāval, the Bāones of Nārayaṇ Deo, and the Kosres of Cānd Śah Vali. A Lādsi or a Kosre Mahār will be polluted if a dog or a donkey dies at his house. He will have to throw away the earthen pots of his house and provide a caste feast before readmission into the caste. A Baone Mahār will be similarly outcasted if a cat enters his house and he will have to undergo the same penalties, and the Somavanśi have a corresponding aversion to pigs. The women of Somas Mahārs draw the end of their *lugḍā* over the right shoulder, those of Lādsi over the left. The women of Somas and Baone have glass bangles on both hands but those of Lādsi and Kosre have glass bangles on the left hand and *kathil* bracelets (*mathas*) on the right hand. Lādsi and Kosre women will not wear nose-rings while those of Somas and Bāone have them.

Māṅgs number 17,325 or 2 per cent. of the population. The sub-divisions in the caste are Ghatole hailing from Melghāṭ,

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Pungivālās who play on the fife and Daphlevālās on the tomtom. The Berāri Māngs make baskets of bamboo and use a knife known as the *bhat* while the Dakhani Māngs will not touch this knife, and work with date-palm leaves.

The Cāmbhārs are a leather working caste, their number in the district being about 9,200 or 1 per cent of the population. The Harale (or Marāṭhe) Cāmbhārs claim the highest rank. When Mahā Muni's supply of hides ran short Haralya, the primeval Cāmbhār, rather than disappoint Mahādeo, stripped off a piece of his own skin to make the god shoes withal. In religion they are devoted to Mahādeo, whom they worship on a Sunday in the month of *Śrāvaṇ*. The *sadhu* who acts as their *guru*, makes a visitation once in every four or five years.

The other important divisions are the Mocis of northern origin and the Dabgars. The Dabgars are tanners and formerly used to prepare the receptacles for string *ghi*. The Harale Cāmbhār dyes leather, and makes shoes, *moṭs*[1] and *pakhāls*[2]. He will not use untanned leather, nor will he work for Mahārs, Māngs, Jingars, or Koḷis".

HINDU CUSTOMS AND RITUALS.

Hindu customs in the main originate from the so called *samskāras* laid down in their *Dharmaśāstras*. An individual right from the conception to the death, has to pass through a number of *samskāras* which are essential ceremonies of initiation held indispensable to constitute his perfect purification. Principally, they are oblations to fire, or customary offerings to idols and are prescribed for all. They have to be performed also for the females in order to sanctify the body, in their proper order and at proper times, only with this difference, that the sacred *mantras* are not to be recited on these occasions. In the same way, the *śudras*, like women, can go through the *samskāras*, without the recitation of sacred *mantras*.

The number of these *samskāras* differs according to different authorities. It will be sufficient for us to consider here the more important of these in connection with the ceremonial practices among the Hindus regarding puberty, pregnancy and birth, marriage and death.

Puberty *samskāras* which were once keenly observed among the Hindus receive now but scant attention. The chief puberty *samskāras* are those in connection with a girl's first menstruation. During the period of menstruation a woman is in a state of taboo. She may not touch anybody, draw water or sleep on a cot made of cotton thread. This state of semi-seclusion lasts for a period which varies in different castes from 5 to 11 days but is usually between 3 and 7 days.

When infant or child marriages were in practice the occurrence of the signs of puberty was usually the signal for the performance of ceremonies for handing over the girl to her husband. The husband was sent for and in higher castes a

[1] A *mot* is the large leathern bucket and funnel used for drawing water from a well.

[2] A *pakhal* is a waterman's goat-skin in which he carries water.

ceremony called *Ṛtu-śānti* was performed which included special *mantras* and a fire sacrifice. Then the *Garbhādāna samskāra* or the foetus-laying ceremony initiating "the consummation of marriage" was gone through.

Hindus consider it to be the duty as well as the honour of a wife to bear a child and all sorts of methods are resorted to avoid barrenness and to obtain a child, especially a son. *Dharmaśāstras* prescribe to that end various *samskāras;* these are *Punsavana,* worship to secure the birth of a male child to be performed at the expiration of the third month of pregnancy, or on signs of vitality in the embryo; *Anavalobhana,* a ceremony to be performed on the third month which is much the same as the preceding, but, as the term implies, is intended to obviate miscarriage (*an,* not, *avalobhana,* disappointment): *Simantonnayana* parting of the hair on the head of the pregnant women by the husband in the 4th, 6th or 8th month of her first pregnancy both reciting *mantras* to secure long life to the child; *Viṣṇūbali* a sacrifice to Viṣṇū on the 7th month of pregnancy.

Besides these *samskāras,* a number of magico-religious practices may be popularly resorted to with the similar end in view.

A woman in pregnancy is considered to be in a state of taboo and peculiarly liable to the influence of magic and in some respects dangerous to others. She is exempt from the observance of fasts, her longings (*ḍohāḷe*) are carefully looked after; she is allowed any food she fancies and a feast (*ḍohāḷe jevaṇ*) is held especially in the 7th month when she is fed with sweets and all sorts of rich food. She is subject to a large number of restrictions in her ordinary life with a view to avoiding anything that might prejudice or retard her delivery. Superstitions to that effect widely prevail; she should not visit her neighbours' houses or sleep in open spaces. She should avoid all red cloths or red things of any sort such as would suggest blood till the 3rd or the 4th month when conception is certain. She would not cross running water, as it might cause premature delivery, nor would go near a she-buffalo or a mare lest delivery be retarded, since a mare is 12 months in foal. She should not finish during pregnancy any work, such as sewing, previously begun nor should her husband thatch the house or repair his axe. An eclipse is particularly considered dangerous to the unborn child and she must not leave the house during its length. Under no circumstances must she touch any cutting instrument, as it might cause her child to be born mutilated.

The young wife generally goes to her parents for her first confinement. In rural areas where the services of a trained midwife are not available, generally during the later stages of the labour the barber's wife watches over the case, but as delivery approaches she hands over the patient to the recognised midwife, usually a Basorin or Chamarin. Among the commoner people of the lower castes and the tribes circumstances force

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them to give scant attention to delivery and women are required to get back to their work within a few days of the birth of the child. Among the more delicate women of the higher castes, they are carefully looked after.

When a child is born, the event may be heralded by the beating of a brass tray to scare away evil spirits. Substances such as mustard-seed, *ajvān*, rock-salt, wheat-bran, hair, etc., all of which are known to be powerful averters of evil, may be waved seven times around the head of the mother and child, and then consumed in the brazier which stands in the lying-in room near or under the patient's cot. Among agricultural castes the child is usually placed after birth in a winnowing basket. The placenta and the navel cord are separated by means of a razor handed over to the Basorin for which she receives a small reward, and are buried in the corner of the lying-in room in a shallow hole. The child is then bathed with warm water and when dry fumigated with smoke of *ajvān* seeds thrown on the brazier in the lying-in room, and is rubbed over with castor oil to keep out the cold. Soon after birth, the ceremony of *jātakarma* may be performed. There is common belief among the people that the first ten days in particular, following the birth of a child, are full of danger both to the new-born and the mother and precaution has to be taken to guard them against evil influences. Among higher castes every evening the family priest recites *Śāntipāṭh* or *Rāmarakṣa* over a pinch of ashes or *aṅgāra* which is then rubbed on the brows of the mother and the child. Among some lower classes the room is guarded from evil spirits by a line of ashes drawn across the door and a leather rope used for binding the plough is tied round the cot.

The special Goddess of birth is believed to be Saṭvāi, and she is generally worshipped on the 5th and the 6th day, with offerings of cakes and flowers. On this day Saṭvāi is supposed to write the destiny of the child on its forehead.

Name-giving is a ceremonial rite among Hindus performed on some auspicious day after the 10th day after birth. The ceremony varies greatly in different castes, in higher castes it being elaborate and among the lower ones more simple. A Brāhmaṇ may be called in who proposes certain names which are auspicious in view of the astrological circumstances of the child-birth; the cradling ceremony takes place in the evening when invited friends and kinswomen gather, each with some presents for the mother and the child.

In observation of the *saṁskāra* of *karṇavedha* (piercing of the ear-lobes) a ceremony may be performed among higher castes on the morning of the 'name-giving'. Nose-piercing is sometimes performed in girls at the same time as ear-piercing, but although the wearing of *nath* (nose-ring) is common in all the better Hindu castes no ceremonial feeling is attached to nose-piercing.

Among better class Hindus a ceremony called *Annaprāśana* celebrates the first feeding of the child. It takes place usually in the sixth or eighth month after birth, but, some castes may perform the rite for a male child in the seventh month and for a female in the sixth month.

The rite of *cuḍākaraṇa,* vernacularly *Caula* or the ceremony of tonsure, shaving the head all but one lock, which is the *cuḍa* or crest has a place in the Hindu *saṁskāras.* It should be performed in the first or third year, and not delayed beyond the fifth, although this is sometimes disregarded. As a purificatory rite it is also prescribed for girls. At present the rite is usually gone through in the case of boys at the time of *upanayana* (thread-girding). However, it is still customary for backward communities to perform an allied ceremony called *jāvaḷ,* the belief being that the hair the child is born with is impure and has to be removed with some ceremony.

Hindus claiming a place in the first three *varṇas* consider *upanayana,* known as *muñj,* as perhaps the most important of all the *saṁskāras.* As a rite it principally consists of investiture with the sacrificial or sacred thread, which is worn over the left shoulder and under the right arm crossing the body to the hip. It is said to effect the second or spiritual birth of the first three *varṇas,* thence termed *dvija* (twice-born). For a Brāhmaṇ the ceremony has to be performed at the 8th year from conception, and not to be delayed after the 10th, for the Kṣatriya in the 11th year and for the Vaiśya in the 12th, and is not to be later than the 22nd and 24th severally. The important ritualistic observations to be followed in the *Saṁskāra* are: (1) *Saṅkalpa,* (2) *Agnisthāpanā,* (3) *Ācāryavaranadi,* (4) *Upanayan.* (5) *Sāvitri Upadeśa* and (6) *Vrata Bandha.*

The ceremony. *Upanayana,* in common parlance known as *muñj,* with its sequence in *Samavartana* commonly known as *soḍ-muñj* which once stood for the Vedic Hindus as the mark of initiation and completion of Vedic studies, has now lost its priestine significance. The ceremony is at present indulged in more as an occasion for social celebration than as an essential ritual. Even among Brāhmaṇs it is sometimes found as neglected or postponed and then hurriedly gone through prior to marriage as they believe that to enter in *Grahasthaśram* (householder's stage) without going through *Brahmacaryāśram* is a religious anomaly. Even as a social ceremony it now rarely runs the course of four days as of old but gets curtailed to the extent of a few hours covering both the 'initiation to' and the completion of the Vedic studies.

For the Hindus, marriage ceremony marks the individual's entry to *Grahasthāśrama,* and as a *saṁskāra* it could only be established after going through certain rituals which have their basis in the *gṛhya sutras.* It is generally considered obligatory for every Hindu to marry, for, it is believed that ones progeny is considerably connected with and instrumental to happiness both in this world as well as hereafter. The birth of a son not

only enables one to obtain *moksa,* but is conceived to be particularly contributory towards helping the father to execute his *pitrrna* or obligations which are due to the departed ancestors. Moreover, the Hindu *Śāstrakāras,* though they enjoin that every male should marry, they are especially particular about the *Vivāha* of a woman. As Manu opines the *Vivāha* of maidens should be performed as soon as they attain the marriageable age, and the father or other guardian who is not careful enough to give a girl in marriage in proper time incurs a great sin.

Many customs and superstitious beliefs gather round the last of the Hindu *samskāra* known as the *antyesti* or the funeral rite.

Hindus who follow Vedic or Purānic rites usually cremate their dead. Backward communities such as Dhangar, Cāmbhār, Ghisādi, Kanjaras, Koḷī, Vaidu, etc. either burn or bury or some burn the married dead and bury the unmarried. Dhors, Mahārs, Māngs, as a rule, practise burial. The Jains cremate while the Lingāyats bury their dead. Some tribals have peculiar funerary customs. *Sanyāsis* when they die receive a ceremonial burial called *Samādhi.* Infants who have not cut their teeth, and among lower castes persons who have died of small-pox or leprosy, are buried. When fuel is scarce and dear the poorer sections of the community often bury, in other cases the dead are usually burned. The bones and ashes of the dead are generally thrown into the sea or a river, and sometimes a part of the bones is kept preserved to be consigned to the waters of a sacred river like the Gangā. Except that they do not use *mantras,* the main funerary observances of the lower class Hindus are similar to those in a Vedic cremation.

When a person is on the point of death his nearest kin, son or wife sits close to him and comforts him, assuring that his family will be well cared for. A small piece of gold and a *tulsi* leaf is laid in his mouth and a few drops of Gangā water are poured into it. When life is extinct the body is removed from his bed or cot and laid with the head to the north on ground washed with cowdung water; holy water is sprinkled on it and a wreath of *tulsi* leaves is put round its neck. The chief mourner has to undergo a purificatory bath, while the priest chants some *mantras.* If the deceased is an ascendant, the chief mourner and other mourners of the same degree are expected to have their heads (except the top-knot) and moustaches shaved. Having done this, he offers oblations of rice-balls (*pinda*) in honour of the dead. The corpse is bathed in warm water and wrapped up in a new *dhotar* or *lugde* according as the dead person is male or female. Women who die before their husbands are dressed in a green robe and bodice, their brow is marked with vermilion, their hair is decked with flowers and some of their customary ornaments put on. Widows receive no such honours and are treated in the same way as men. All the relations present, men and women, bow to the dead. Finally the corpse is laid on a bamboo ladder-like bier, on the back with

the face to the sky, is shrouded in a new white sheet, and then borne by four persons on their shoulders to the cremation ground. The priest and the chief mourner (who holds in his hand an earthen fire-pot hanging from a string) lead the funeral party. The body is released from the bier and laid on the pyre or a pile of wood. Each of the mourners symbolically puts a piece of fuel on the pyre. With the help of the live charcoal brought along a fire called *mantrāgni* is prepared and the chief mourner ignites the pyre with it. When the body is almost consumed by the fire, the chief mourner carries an earthen pot (the one in which the fire was brought) filled with water on his shoulders and walks thrice round the burning pyre, a man who walks with him at each turn piercing with a stone called the *aṣma* or life-stone a hole in the jar out of which water spouts on the burning corpse. He finally throws the trickling water-pot backwards over the shoulders spilling the water over the ashes. He then to cool the spirit of the dead which has been heated by the fire pours libations of water mixed with sesamum on the *aṣma* or life-stone (which is thenceforth carefully preserved for ten days) and the mourners follow suit. When the body is completely consumed the party returns. During the first ten days all persons belonging to the *Gotra* of the deceased observe mourning (*Sutak*).

Obsequies.

The spot on which the deceased breathed his last is smeared with cowdung and a lighted lamp (with a single wick) is set on it. Generally, on the third day the rite of *asthi-sañcayana* (bone-gathering) is performed and the chief mourner initiates the post-funeral rites on the day, the *aṣma* (life-stone) being attended to as representing the deceased.

The *śrāddhas* and funeral obsequies are the only ceremonies performed for the salvation of the ancestors. A special ceremony called *Nārāyaṇ bali* may be performed for those that have died of accident, but in case of one dying childless no departure from the ordinary rites takes place. The funeral obsequies are performed during the first thirteen days after death. Oblations of rice are offered every day, in consequence of which the soul of the deceased is supposed to attain a spiritual body limb by limb till on the thirteenth day it is enabled to start on its journey. Oblations are also offered on the twenty-seventh day and sometimes thereafter on the day of the death once in every month for a year, of which the six-monthly and the *bharaṇi* oblations i.e. the *śrāddha* performed on the fifth of the dark half of the month of *Bhādrapad* are essential; and after a year has elapsed, the oblations of the first anniversary day are celebrated with great solemnity. The annual *śrāddha* is performed on the day corresponding to the day of death, in the latter half of the month of *Bhādrapad*. Where the deceased's family can afford it, a *śrāddha* is also performed on the anniversary day, which is known as *Kṣayatithi*. While performing the *śrāddha* for one's deceased father, offerings are also made to other ancestors and to deceased collaterals. Women dying in the life-time of their husbands have special oblations offered to

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them during their husbands life-time. This takes place on the ninth day of the *pitrapakṣa* which is known as *Avidhavā Navami.*

OMENS.

Hindus almost of all castes believe in omens and think that the result of every undertaking is foreshadowed by certain signs and hints. The sight of corpse or of flesh is a lucky omen, except with Lāḍs and Sonārs. To Gosāvis and Bairāgis, salt, earth and the potter are inauspicious, but not to other castes: while a Brāhmaṇ with headcloth on his head and his caste-marks painted brings good luck, but if he should be encountered bare-headed, misfortune is the result. A married woman is lucky to meet; a widow unlucky. A pot full of water is a good thing to see; an empty pot is not so. If a man has a twitching in the right eye the omen is good, but not so if it occurs in his left eye: while with the woman the case is reversed. A sweeper bearing nightsoil is a lucky man to meet; a Teli with an oil pot is unlucky. Should a spider cross one's hand it is a good omen, but a house lizard falling on one's body is bad. A single sneeze when a person is speaking denotes bad luck to him, but an additional sneeze will change it. A deer, blue jay, peacock or ichneumon on the left hand side are all harbingers of good as also a mongoose, a cow with a calf, and an ox, but woe to the man whose path is crossed by a crow, or a cat, or who hears a dog howling, or a owl hooting. A wild parrot perching on the head or shoulder, the sound of joyful music, dreaming a good dream, or meeting a corpse borne by four men are all omens of good import; while a lamp falling, a man's *pagri* or a woman's toe ring coming off, or a ring dove entering a house are events fraught with evil consequences. If a child is born with the umbilical cord round its neck like a halter, it is believed that he ended his former life as a prisoner in some jail.

SOCIAL LIFE.

Property and Inheritance.

In respect of inheritance the Hindus are governed by the Hindu law and the Muhammedans by the Muhammedan law. Prior to the passing of the Hindu Succession Act in 1956 the Mitakṣara School of Hindu law applied to this district according to which the succession was mostly agnate in the line, its general principle being that property devolved on the sons on the death of the father. According to Manu, the great law-giver. "to the nearest *sapiṇḍa* the inheritance next belonged." As soon as the last owner of the property passed away the property devolved upon his nearest *sapiṇḍa*, or the person connected nearest. By stressing agnate succession, inheritance according to Hindu law became essentially patriarchal. Widows and son's widows were entitled to maintenance and daughters to maintenance before marriage and to expenses incurred at their marriage, out of the joint family funds.

In the past a person lost his right to property if he changed his religion but as early as 1850 this was rectified by the Caste Disabilities Removal Act. Similarly if a widow remarried, she lost her rights but the passing of the Hindu Widow's Re-marriage Act in 1856 this disability was removed. However, a

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woman could own the personal property (*streedhan*) given to her at marriage. The agnate succession was also modified by the passing of the Hindu Women's Right to Property Act of 1937 under which in certain cases, the widow became entitled to the same share as a son and in the case of a joint family the widow took the place of her deceased husband.

Legislation in recent years has included measures of reform affecting the law of inheritance among all classes of Hindus. The Hindu Succession Act of 1956 aims at simplifying the Hindu Law of Succession. The Act removes the inequality between man and woman in regard to rights of property. It does away with the distinction between Mitaksara and Dayābhāg Law of succession. However, special provision is made for regulating succession to the property of intestates. The Act has made the following changes, which are revolutionary, in the old Hindu Law. (1) All property held by a Hindu woman is now her absolute property and there are no restrictions on her rights. (2) The heirs of a deceased Hindu are entitled to get a share even in the undivided interest in the coparcenery property. A Hindu can make a will even of his individual interest in the coparcenery property. In its clarification it could be said that before the passing of this Act, except *streedhan*, a woman was not supposed to be the last owner of the property, nor a married daughter could claim right in her father's property. But now a daughter has as good a claim over her father's property as the son, provided her father does not debar her by law. Secondly a widow has only life interest in the property and she was not legally entitled to dispose of her property as she liked That disqualification is now removed.

Among the Muhammedans, the father has the absolute right in the property and he can debar any of the sons from inheritance if he was not satisfied with him According to Muhammedan Law the daughter has as good a claim over her father's property as the son and there is a fixed ratio of the right of the son and the daughter.

Communal Life. *Pilgrim centres and Jatras.*

It is a common incidence to find a few score of holiday makers assembling at quite a number of insignificant tombs of ascetics scattered up and down the country; almost every one of these on some particular day in the year receive some religious attention of a group. But the more important are the gatherings at the twenty-two annual or half yearly fairs in the district. These are Marki, Ganoja and Rinmochan in the Amrāvatī tahsil; Kauṇḍinyapūr, Bhiltek, and Sāvaṅgā Vithobācā in Cāndūr tahsil; Vaḍner Gaṅgāi, Yeoda, Murha and Uparāi in the Daryāpūr tahsil; Ner Piṅglāi, Akhatvāḍā, Riṭhpūr, Dhānorā, Jivanpūra (in Acalpūr city), Acalpūr city (Dulā Rahmān), Deurvāḍā, and Bairāmghāṭ in Acalpūr tahsil and Divā in Melghāṭ. Most of these are, however, insignificant, one or two, such as Uprāi, Riṭhpūr and the annual *urus* of Dulā Rahmān at Acalpūr, being notable not so much on account of the gathering as of the peculiar sanctity attaching to the shrine

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venerated. Those at Sālbarḍi, Kauṇḍiṇyapūr, Bhilṭek and Bairāmghāt, have something more than a local celebrity.

Of the fairs held in Amrāvatī tahsil, the one at Markī is held annually for three days in *Caitra* in honour of Śrī Markināth; thousands of coconuts are offered to the *homa* or fire worship performed in front of the shrine and several *bhajan meḷās* wander over the fair singing enthusiastically religious songs to the accompaniment of tomtoms, cymbals, and similar music. At Ganoja a small fair is held on the 15th of *Mārgaśirṣ* in honour of Devi and is chiefly attended by Brāhmaṇs who come here to perform their family rites, the devout spending three nights at shrine. Riṇmocan, a sacred place on the river Purna, boasts of a well attended annual fair held on the four Sundays in the month of *Pauṣ*. The word *Riṇ-mocan* literally means "release from debts" and it is believed that those who attend the fair and bathe in the river attain considerable merit.

The ancient temple of Ambā Devi in Amrāvatī town is held in great reverence by the Hindu community. An annual *Navarātra* fair is held for ten days, starting from the first of *Āśvin śud* and visitors come in great number on the 8th, 9th and 10th days, for a *darśan* of the goddess. There is a *homa* (fire sacrifice) at the temple and on the 10th i.e. the *Dasarā* day the goddess seated in a palanquin crosses the border of the town. Amidst great festivities huge effigies of Rāvaṇa, Kumbhakarṇa and Śurpaṇakhā are set fire to, and by night a pyrotechnic display is held.

Of the other places famous for their fairs, Kauṇḍiṇyapūr, a village situated on the banks of the Wardhā in the Cāndūr tahsil boasts of an annual fair in honour of the hero Viṭṭhal Rukmaya[1] held on *Kārtik Paurṇimā* and is said to be attended by more than fifty thousand persons.

The village of Riṭhpūr, Dabheri and Akhatvaḍā are particularly famous in connection with the sect of Mahānubhava. Riṭhpūr which is the headquarters of the sect has two fairs held yearly on *Caitra Paurṇimā* and *Āṣāḍh Paurṇimā* which though primarily Mahānubhava festivals, are attended by people of all castes. It is said that Riṭhpūr was the headquarters of Śrī Govindprabhu the *guru* of Mahānubhava sect established by Cakradhar Svāmi. Dabheri, not far from Riṭhpūr, has a temple of Dabheśvar held in reverence by the Mahānubhava. A member of the sect making the pilgrimage to Riṭhpūr is supposed to visit Dabheri and so also Akhatvaḍā, a small village close by with its temple of Rokḍeśvar which is also a Mahānubhava shrine.

Sālbarḍi, an insignificant village about five miles north of Morśī and situated on the Maru river has an annual fair in March lasting for three days and is attended by a large number

[1] As the anecdote goes king Rukmaya, father of Rukmini had his capital at Dewalvada which is buried beneath the present village; princess Rukmini had been to Amravati for the *darshana* of Amba Devi, and she was thence abducted by Krishna and married.

Pilgrim centres and Jatras.

of persons. The place holds an important position in Hindu mythology, as it is said that it was here that Sita had come when she was deserted by Rāma and had given birth to her sons Lava and Kuśa; the twins are then said to have caught the horse Śyāmkarn let loose by their father and in the fight that ensued defeated him and his three brothers, and then there was the happy union. Another place worthy of mention on account of great fair held is Bairāmghaṭ about 14 miles east of Acalpūr. A shrine there is frequented by the lower classes both of Muhammedans and Hindus, and in October each year a fair is held, which, on account of its sanctity, is attended by more than 50,000 persons coming from all parts.

Some places in the district have attained importance only recently because of the martyrs who succumbed there to the police firing in the freedom movement of 1942. As for instance, a procession is held at Benodā (Morśī tahsil) on the 16th August and at Yavali (Amrāvatī tahsil) a fair on the 18th of February, each year when people gather to pay homage to the memory of the freedom martyrs.

Balutedars.

In former times a Berār village had its *balutedārs* who were entitled at harvest time to their *hakk* (prescriptive claim) to a share in return for their services of the crop that had been raised by the cultivators. They might in a fully equipped village be as many as twelve in number, and include (1) the carpenter or *Vadhi;* (2) the blacksmith or *Khati;* (3) the *Garpugari,* a person who by white magic was supposed to be able to ward off hail storms from the crop; (4) the *Mahār* or village menial; (5) the *Cambhār* or leather currier; (6) the potter or *Kumbhār;* (7) the barber or *Mhali,* (8) the washerman or *Varṭhi;* (9) the *Gurav* whose business was to clean the temple; (10) the *Jośi* or Brāhmaṇ, priest and astrologer; (11) the *Bhāṭ* or bard, and (12) the *Mullāh* who officiated at Muslim ceremonies and performed the *halal* of animals killed for food. The carpenter made and repaired field tools and the wooden stools used at marriages, the blacksmiths prepared the iron accessories of ploughs and carts. In former times at *Gal Puja,* the hook-swinging festival, it was his duty to force the iron hook into the muscles of the devotee's back. The Mahār besides being a watchman castrated young cattle; and a Mahār woman acted as midwife. The Mhali at marriages was a torch bearer, or led the bridegroom's horse. The Varṭhi spread white cloth for the bridegroom's relations to walk on. The Gurav beat the drum at the time of worship in the temples. The Jośi prepared the almanac, pointing out lucky days for marriages, for ploughing, for seed time and harvest, calculated eclipses, drew up horoscopes and officiated at marriages and funerals. At the last and at all village festivities the Bhāṭ attended and recited the genealogy of his host. The Mullāh in the absence of the Kāzi was the spiritual guide of the Muhammedans.

The system, if system it may be called, was probably simple enough in practice, but with the vast economic development of

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Balutedārs.

the last fifty years or so, it has gone the way of all such primitive arrangements and retains its place only as a memory. An atmosphere of romance has gathered about it, and its details are dwelt on in a manner which would speedily have made them unworkable, had they had any but a traditional reality. The village blacksmith has become a stamp-vendor or a publican; the Shimpi leaves his work to speculate in cotton; the Bhaṭ may still be in request at marriages and adoptions; the Jośī and the Mullāh have probably obtained *inām* fields on which to support themselves and the worship they perform. The Mahār alone, the lowest of all the twelve, can claim his right to a share in the harvest. But at places moving with the rest, he may be found to vie with Kuṇbīs in the care of the soil, and perhaps to have become a prosperous landholder in some other village than his own.

Village deities.

As usual each village has a number of petty deities at whose shrines worship is offered on special occasions. Of all the gods of the Hindu pantheon Mahādeo and Māruti (Hanumān) probably receive the most attention in the district. Mahādeo or Śiva is represented by his phallic emblem, the *ling* or stone pyramid; a representation of his sacred animal, the bull *Nandi,* is usually placed before him. "The cult of Śiva", says Dr. Barnett[1], "affects the two poles of society. At one end he is favoured by many high class Brāhmaṇs and ascetics who are devoted to metaphysical studies", and at the other "he is popular with the lowest classes who favour the yoga system in its practical side which is largely based upon vulgar ideas of magic and Shamanism, and hence many of its professors have always been vulgar charlatans and worse". Māruti is the monkey god whose shrine is found in every village. If a large number of temples and shrines were any test of the popularity of a god, Māruti would certainly bear off the palm. He is represented by an image of a monkey coloured with vermilion The face of the image must always be to the south because Laṅkā (Ceylon) is situated on the south of India. Māruti's services to Rāmā as related in the *Rāmāyaṇa* were great and many. He fought most valiantly in the great expedition against Rāwaṇ the demon king of the island for the recovery of Sitā. The exploits of Māruti are favourite topics among Hindus from childhood to age, and paintings of them are common. On Saturdays people fast in his honour Vermilion mixed with oil is applied to the image, a gar'and of *rui* (*Calatropis gigantea*) leaves placed on its neck and *urad* grains on its head.

In almost every village of Berār there is a temple of Śiva with Gaṇapati, as presiding over the troop of deities (*gaṇa*) attendant on Śiva. Gaṇeś is represented by an elephant-headed human figure, in a sitting posture, with a large bel'y. He is the god of good luck and learning and remover of difficulties and obstacles. He is addressed by orthodox Hindus at the commencement of all undertakings, and the opening of all compositions. Even the

[1] Hinduism (Religions Ancient and Modern series, p. 40.)

yearly account books commence with his sacred symbol and with the phrase 'Śrī Gaṇeśāya namāh' (I bow to the illustrious Gaṇesh).

Village Deities.
Khaṇḍobā.

The deity held in much reverence by Kuṇbīs, as also by Dhangars and many lower castes is Khaṇḍobā. The Vāghyās beg in the name of Khaṇḍobā and it was once a custom to dedicate Muraḷi girls to him. In many houses, there is a small silver image of the god, mounted, with sword in hand. before which on the Campā Saṣhi is waved a copper platter bearing coconut, jaggery, turmeric and sixteen small lamps made of floured wheat. His votaries also offer him brinjals and onions, his favourite diet, which they may not use themselves before this day. The black dog of Khaṇḍobā is also worshipped. Sunday is the day sacred to the deity (who is also known as Mārtaṇḍ), and alms are solicited on this day in his name.

Other village deities.

Śakti, or deified energy, is worshipped by all classes of Hindus as Lakṣmī by the followers of Viṣṇu; and as Pārvatī, Bhavānī, and Durgā by the Śaivas. The favourite incarnation of Devī in the district is probably Bhavānī, to whom large temples at Amrāvatī and Māhur are dedicated, and in whose service the Gondhaḷis are enrolled. She is worshipped for the nine days, Bhavanī Navarātra, preceding the *Dasarā*, the idol being placed on a basket crowned every day with fresh flowers. The basket rests on a pot full of water, and for the whole period of nine days a light is kept burning on a stand before the image. On the tenth day of the *Dasarā* it was once a practice for the head of the village to slay a buffalo in remembrance of the victory of Devī over the demon god Mhasobā or Mahiṣāsūr. On this day also an unmarried girl used to be placed beside the image of Bhavānī and worshipped, the ceremony being possibly a relic of the 'left-handed ritual' of the *pañcmakar* or *vāma-margis*. Bhavānī is also worshipped on the new and the full moon.

Sitalā or Mātā Māi is the goddess of small-pox. She is represented by a few stones rubbed with vermilion and worshipped only during the attack of small pox Cooked rice and curds are offered to the goddess when the small-pox has subsided Sometimes fowls or goats are sacrificed to her.

Meskāi is a deity enshrined on the boundary of a village. He-buffaloes used to be once sacrificed to her annually on *Dasarā* day. She has to be propitiated at the time of marriage by the offer of turmeric and vermilion. the remainder of the former article being brought home and applied to the bride and bride-groom. Mhasobā is a buffalo—god known to live under water of large rivers, and requiring propitiation. Vāghdev must be appeased by those who run risk from tigers. Saṭavi is a goddess who cures children; and Mariāi Mātā regulates the spread of cholera in accordance with the attention she receives.

Ćindhia Deva, or the divinity of tatters is represented by a heap of stones daubed with red, and fluttering with rags under a tree; they say if you present it a rag in season you may chance to get good clothes.

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MAHANUBHAVA SECT.

Asra is the goddess of water inhabiting tanks, rivers and wells. She is represented by a stone rubbed with vermilion.

The Mahānubhavas, who derive their name from *mahā anubhava* (great realisation), are a small sect of Hindus. Their chief seat and place of pilgrimage is at Riṭhpūr in Morśī tahsil, though they have also an establishment near Poona. The Jai Krisṇa sect in the Puñjāb and Acyut Panth in Gujarāt are said to be branches of the same sect. Cakradharsvāmi, an eminent disciple of Guru Govindprabhu, is regarded to be the founder of the Mahānubhava sect. Dr. V. B. Kolte and others are of the opinion that Cakradharsvāmi came from Gujarāt and settled at Riṭhpūr. It is also said that Haripāldev, a Gujarāti Brāhmaṇ, got *prasād* of Sengulya from Guru Govindprabhu who afterwards named him as Cakradhar. Cakradharsvāmi who is supposed to have been born as a *purṇāvatār* of the *Parabrahma Parameśvar* in *śake* 1143, got *Dnyān* (knowledge) as a result of devout austerity in the presence of Guru Govindprabhu. The Mahānubhavas believe in Panc Krisṇa, viz., (1) Śrī Krisṇa, (2) Śrī Dattātreyaprabhu, (3) Śrī Cakrapāṇi, (4) Śrī Govindprabhu, and (5) Śrī Cakradharswāmi.

The sect was misunderstood for long, mainly because of wrong interpretations. Non-availability of Mahānubhava literature was one of the factors that kept the sect in dark. The sect, though based on the philosophy expounded in the *Bhagavatgītā* has its own distinct place in the system of religion. It differs in details from the Vedānt philosophy. But it can be said that it is just a branch of spiritual knowledge like *Advait, Dvait,* etc.

The sect originated as a reaction against the rigid caste system (*Cāturvarṇya*), the multiplicity of gods, the vaunting nature of the Brāhmaṇs of Paiṭhaṇ Peeṭh which together culminated in influencing the then disordered social structure.

The Mahānubhava sect accepted the monotheistic principle and inculcated the exclusive worship of Lord Krisṇa, the only incarnation of the Supreme Being or *Purṇāvatār* or *Parabrahma Parameśvar.* The sect repudiated the multiplicity of gods and broke off all former ties of the caste system. However, the Mahānubhavas worship places and stones touched by Cakradharsvāmi. Cakradharsvāmi pronounced that *Jeeva, Devatā, Prapañca* and *Parameśvar* are the only four things that exist in the whole universe. Out of these, *Jeeva* is *bandhamukta, Devatā* is *nityabandha, Prapañca* is *jaḍ* and *Parameśvar* alone is *nityamukta. Jeeva* and *Parameśvar* are two different entities and they never merge into one even though the *Jeeva* becomes *mukta.* Thus, the sect preaches a sort of *Dvait* philosophy.

The head of the sect is a *Mahant* with whom are associated a number of priests. The sect is divided into two classes, *Upadeśi* and *Sanyāsi.* Celibacy* is regarded as the perfect life but

*The celibates, both men and women, shave the head completely and wear black robes. The lower garment is a waist cloth forming a sort of *lungi*, and is intended to express devotion and indifference to distinctions of sex.

matrimony is permitted. Marriage being contrary to strict rule they inform their *guru* and get his consent before entering upon it. The ceremony is performed in privacy inside the temple. The marriage ceremony is very simple and unaccompanied by processions or rejoicings. Widow remarriage is allowed. Mahānubhavas evince a great respect for animal life. Most of them pass the *Dasarā* day outside the villages or towns. This is probably attributable to sacrifice of a he-buffalo which they abhor. This signifies their disliking for slaughter of living beings. They have a deep respect for plant life as well.

The dead are generally buried in salt, usually in a sitting posture, though sometimes the corpse is laid in the grave on one side with feet to the south, head to the north and face to the east. The Mahānubhavas still proselytise.

Apart from the religious doctrines and humanitarian outlook preached by the sect, its exponents have made a distinguished contribution to Marāṭhī language and literature. About eight hundred years ago the sect accepted Marāṭhī language as its *dharmabhāṣā,* and helped its spread and growth. The followers of the sect who speak Marāṭhī well are still found in some parts of Gujarāt and the Puñjāb. This is because of the strenuous efforts of Nāgadevācārya, the first propagandist of Mahānubhava sect, who, with the help of other followers like Māhimbhaṭ and others, moved through various parts of the country to spread the doctrines of the sect through Marāṭhī language. The religious literature of the sect contains both prose and poetry. *Lilā Caritra, Siddhānt Sutre, Sutrapath, Dṛṣṭānt, Prameya-granth, Band* and Mahānubhava Tatvadnyana are masterpieces in prose; while *Dhavale* of Mahadamba, *Śiśupāl vadha* and *Ṛkmiṇi Svayamvar* are renowned poetic works.

MUSLIMS.

The total Muslim population in Amrāvatī district increased from 98,444 (*m.* 50,592; *f.* 47,852) in 1951 to 1,19,882 (*m.* 62,761; *f.* 57,121) in 1961. The percentage of Muslims to total population, thus, increased from 9.55 in 1951 to 9.72 in 1961. Muslims are found to be concentrated in towns, such as, Amrāvatī, Acalpūr, Paratvāḍā, Morśi, Daryāpūr and Badnera. Of the total Muslim population, 59,644 live in urban areas and 60,238 in rural areas of the district.

The Muslims in Amrāvatī district seem to have immigrated from the Central Provinces, Northern India and Hyderābād State. The immigrants mainly comprise Sayyads, Śaikhs and Paṭhāṇs. The Sayyads claim themselves a higher position in social stratification; but this does not prohibit them to intermarry. The Sayyads are descendants of Ali, the son-in-law, and Lady Fatimāh, the daughter, of the Prophet. They use the title Sayyad or Mir before, and sometimes Śāh after, their name, while married women prefix or suffix the title of Begum. The Śaikhs, who are regarded to be respectable in social status, commonly use either Śaikh or Muhammad as their first names. The Paṭhāṇs, originally the descendants of Afghan immigrants, add Khān to names of men and Khātun or Khātu to those of women.

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The People.

MUSLIMS.

A considerable number of Muslims in the district are converted Hindus. These include the professional castes of Momin (weavers), Piñjāri (mattress makers), Bāgvān (gardeners), Dalāl (agents), Kalaigar (tinsmiths), Darji (tailors), Kasāi (butchers), Sulahā (weavers), Attār (perfumers) and Rangāri (dyers).

A majority of Muslims are backward educationally as well as economically. Very few of them are found in the learned professions. A number of Muslims are employed in the police, army and the subordinate ranks of Government service. A few of the Muslims are landlords, whereas a considerable number of them are either tenant cultivators or land labourers. The number of Muslims in retail trade and hawking is quite large.

Religion.

Muslims in the district belong to the two leading forms of faith, the Sunni and the Śiah, the former being found in far greater number than the latter. The main difference between the Sunnis and Śiahs is that according to the latter the Caliphate or spiritual leadership descended in the Prophet's family, and therefore, it necessarily devolved on Lady Fatimāh and her husband—Ali, the fourth Caliph. They reject the first three Caliphs after Muhammad, viz., Abu Bakar, Omer and Usmān. After Ali, they hold that the Caliphate descended to his sons Hassan and Hussain. The central incident of Śiah faith is the assassination of Hussain (the son of Ali) near Karbala. The martyrdom of Hussain is celebrated during the first ten days in the month of Muharram by the Śiahs. They count the month to begin from the fading of the old moon instead of the new moon and pray three instead of five times a day.

The Muhammedan religion has laid down five principles and observances, viz., (1) 'There is but one God and Muhammad is His prophet'; (2) five prayers per day; (3) observance of fast during Ramzān; (4) distribution of alms to pilgrims desiring to go to Mecca, and to the poor religious beggars; (5) the Haj or pilgrimage to Mecca.

Festivals.

The festivals common with all Muslims are Muharram, Ramzān and Bakri-Id. Muharram, the first month of the Muslim year, is celebrated as the anniversary of the martyrdom of Hussain at Karbala. It is a month of mourning. The Ramzān fast, which is incumbent on every Muslim, is broken on the day called Id-ul-Fitr or Ramzān-Id (first day of Shawwal). The Ramzān-Id, which is believed to have been initiated by the Prophet, is a day of rejoicing, thanks giving and bounteous charity. Bakri-Id or Id-ul-Azha (tenth day of the last month) is a festival of sacrifice 'in the name of God'. The Wafāt or the day of the Prophet's death (twelfth of Rabi-ul-Awwal) is another holy day of great religious importance.

Customs.

Birth.

The Muslims, like the Hindus, desire an issue, especially a male one. The issueless parents resort to charms and mystic means suggested by exorcist. Pregnant ladies are required to abide by several restrictions as regards their food, behaviour and

movements. They are supposed to be alerted about spiritual charms and evil spirits.

For the first delivery the lady goes to her father's house, and stays there till her confinement is over. The newly-born babe is given a bath, and the words *Allāho Akbar* (God is great) are repeated in his ear.

This is followed by a number of petty rituals, the chief among them being the naming ceremony. The *Bismillāh* ritual, which can be called the rite of initiation, takes place when the child reaches the age of four years, four months and four days. The *Suntā* or circumcision ceremony, distinguishing the Muslims from others, is gone through at the age of six or seven.

Marriage.

Among the Muslims marriage is a contract for the fulfilment of social obligations in the family. Early marriages were widely prevalent in the past. The marriageable age for a boy is regarded to be over twenty and for a girl to be over fourteen. However, there are numerous cases of boys and girls getting married earlier than this.

After the parties agree to the betrothal, the horoscopes of the pair are generally taken into consideration. The settlement of marriage is announced after going through the formalities of *mangṇi*, the asking of the girl's hand in marriage. *Mehr* (dowry) is settled at the time of *mangṇi*.

Marriage is regarded to be an occasion of rejoicing. The celebration is supposed to start with the sending of reciprocal gifts (*sacāq*). The bride as well as the bridegroom are anointed with turmeric, *hennā* or *mehndi*. They are required to observe certain taboos to avoid an evil eye or black magic.

The chief ceremony is the *nikāh* or marriage service. In this ritual the witnesses obtain consent of the bride to accept the bridegroom in marriage, and announce this to the *kāzi* (marriage registrar) and the assembled guests. The *kāzi* registers the marriage. The agreed sum of girl's dowry (*mehr*) is entered in the register and the bridegroom declares before all present that he has chosen her as his wife with the said sum of dowry. The bride's father expresses his readiness to give his daughter in marriage. The guests are entertained with music, drinks, etc. The couple is acquainted to each other during the *jalvā* ceremony. The main rituals come to an end with the ceremony of leave-taking (*rukhsat*) when the bride accompanies the groom to his home.

Though not very much in practice, polygamy is permitted up to a number of four wives. The prohibited degrees of marriage include consanguinity, affinity and fosterage. A Muslim can marry his wife's sister in case of his wife's death or can marry a widow. He is prohibited from marrying a polytheist.

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MUSLIMS.

Customs.

Marriage.

Divorce is at the option of the husband who can divorce his wife at his own will, and the *Koran* does not demand any justification from the husband. He has only to pay alimony (*mehr*) to the divorced wife. A woman can claim divorce on grounds of ill-treatment, insufficiency of maintenance and impotence on the part of the husband. Three major forms of divorce are recognised by Muhammedan law, viz., *talaq-i-ahsan*, *talaq-i-rajai* and *talaq-i-husn*. The first two forms of divorce are reversible whereas the third one is irreversible. A divorced woman cannot remarry during a probation period of three months called *iddat*. Her first husband is supposed to maintain her during the *iddat*.

Cases of women asking for divorce are rare. A woman seeking divorce has to apply to the *kāzi* which, according to Muhammedan law, is a repudiation of her wifehood at her own desire. In this case she forfeits her claim for *mehr*.

Divorce is regarded as a social disgrace among the supposedly higher classes of the Muslims. The lower classes do not attach much importance to it. Widow remarriage is permissible.

Death.

When the death of a Muslim approaches, the chapter from the *Koran* (telling of death and the glorious future of the true believer) is recited to him, so that the dying man may also repeat it. After death the requisite rituals are gone through. The dead body rubbed with camphor and perfumes is shrouded in a *kafan* and is mounted on a bier called *janāzā*. The entire ceremony is marked with respect for the dead. The bier is lifted by bearers who are caste men. On way to the graveyard hymns from the scriptures are recited. The *janāzā* is buried, the head being kept to the north and leaning to the right side so that the face turns towards Mecca. The kinsmen pray for the soul of the dead.

Muhammedan Tendencies.

Due to long period of Muhammedan dominance in the country, customs particularly of lower-caste Hindus show in several respects the influence of Islam in the district; e.g. Candā Śāh Vali, or Candā Khān Vali as he is also called, is known as a Jinn who resides in mud forts. He is enshrined in a platform over which a white flag waves. The flag must be renewed on the day of *Dasarā* by the village *paṭel*, otherwise stones are thrown on the houses at night time by the annoyed Vali and the safety of the village is endangered. As the story goes Candā Śāh Vali was a great magician in times gone by. He used to take away a king's daughter for days together, but at last got caught and was ordered to be buried alive by the enraged king, who however, granted the last request of the magician to raise in memory a new flag on every *Dasarā* near the village *cāvḍi*. Similarly, the Dhanoje Kuṇbīs commonly revere the Daval Malik, a Muhammedan saint, whose tomb is at Uprai in the district. An *urus* or fair is held here on Thursdays, the day sacred to Muhammedan saints, and on this account Dhanoje Kuṇbīs will not shave on Thursdays. They also make vows of mendicancy at the Muharram festival, and go begging for rice and pulse; they give a little of what they

Muhammedan Tendencies.

obtain to Muhammedan beggars and eat the rest. At the Muharram they tie a red thread on their necks and dance round the *alavā*, a small hole in which fire is kindled in front of the *tazias* or tombs of Hussain. The tomb of Cilam Śāh Vali at Amrāvatī Camp is an object of reverence to both alike; so are also the rock of Bairam and the *Makbarā* of 'Dulhā Rahmān', the mythical headless Gazi of Acalpūr. In many villages of the district will be found the grave of some local ascetic who made himself dear to the villagers. To the Hindus he is *guru* and they paint one side of his tombstone with vermilion and do *puja*, in his honour accordingly; but to the Musalmans he is a *pir* and the other side therefore whitewashed at the Great and Lesser Id with a cloth of bright green.

CHRISTIANS.

The Christian population of the district has increased from 2,785 (m. 1,300; f. 1,485) in 1951 to 4,214 (m. 2,187; f. 2,027) in 1961. It includes, Indian Christians, Anglo-Indians and a few Europeans of Roman Catholic, Protestant and other Christian faiths. Although foreigners have established the missions, the Christians of the district have not been much affected by the foreign culture and customs. A majority of the Christians in the district are farmers. The others include teachers, nurses and a few private business men. Some tribals especially Korkus from Melghāṭ areas have been evangelised. The converted Korkus speak Korku and Hindi languages. While the other Christians speak Marāthī and Hindi languages.

In all there are five missions in the district, the account of which is given in what follows. These missions have been serving the inhabitants through educational institutions, dispensaries, and hospitals.

Mission work in the Berār by the Catholic Church of Rome began as early as 1848. The pioneer of Christianity throughout the Berār, and in the neighbouring portions of the Nizām's dominions and the central provinces, was Rev. Fr. John Thevenet, M.S.F.S., a member of the religious society of the Missionaries of St. Francis de Sales. His labours continued for nearly forty years. In Amrāvatī there is still preserved the small church, dedicated to St. Francis Xavier, built by Fr. Thevenet in 1874. The church has seen two subsequent extensions, so that, to-day it is quite an imposing structure. The missionary apostolate of Fr. Thevenet was carried on by his namesake and nephew, Rev. Fr. Ernest Thevenet, M.S.F.S., who also for over 40 years devoted himself selflessly to the spiritual and economic welfare of the people as it is witnessed by the extensive coffee plantations which he established in Chikhaldarā, with the able assistance of Rev. Bro. Eugene Oppold, M.S.F.S., in order to give employment to the Korkus of Marianpur, a small catholic colony where a chapel was built and dedicated to St. Ann in 1899.

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The People.

CHRISTIANS.

Amrāvatī district was originally a part of the Archdiocese of Nāgpūr, but in 1955 it was raised into a separate Diocese comprising the districts of Amrāvatī, Akolā, Yeotmāḷ, Bulḍhāṇā, Auraṅgābād, Parbhaṇī and Nāndeḍ. The new Diocese has been entrusted to the missionaries of St. Francis de Sales, with the St. Rev. Joseph A. Rosario, M.S.F.S., as Bishop. The original centre of the Catholic church in the Berār was Akolā, but in 1884 the headquarters were shifted to Amrāvatī. Starting from very small beginnings, with only a handful of Catholics in Amrāvatī, Baḍnerā and Acalpūr, at present there are approximately 3,450 Catholics in the district at the following centres: Amrāvātī (654), Baḍnerā (124), Acalpūr (222), Cikhaldarā (459), Dauni (39), Kāpūs Taḷṇi (943) and Rassegāṅv (998). A special feature of Catholic life in the area is the annual pilgrimage on the 11th February to the Grotto of Our Lady of Loudes in Cikhaldarā, not a few of the pilgrims walking up to 30 miles each way in a spirit of penance. Twelve Catholic priests in the district minister to the needs of the Catholics.

The Catholic church is also engaged in the field of education. There are two Catholic high schools for boys (Amrāvatī and Kāpus Taḷṇi) and two for girls (Amrāvatī), besides two middle schools (Baḍnerā and Acalpūr) and two primary schools (Amrāvatī and Cikhaldarā). Practically all these schools have a boarding attached to them where large numbers especially of poor children from the villages are looked after and given facilities for good education.

The sisters of the Holy Cross of Chavanod, France, first came to India in 1886 when they started the Holy Cross convent school at Amrāvatī. They greatly distinguished themselves by the prominent part they took both in famine relief in 1900 and in combating the great out-break of plague in 1903. They are today playing an important role in the field of education, besides running a creche at Amrāvatī for unwanted babies, a big orphanage at Cikhaldarā and a dispensary at Rassegāṅv where they minister to the sick of the village and the surrounding areas. Finally the scope for social service by the Catholic church was even further widened by the coming to Amrāvatī of the missionary sisters of Charity, founded at Calcutta in 1948 by Mother Theresa, M.C. Besides running two free dispensaries at Amrāvatī, and recently opened Iśadayā Śiśubhavan for crippled children, they are also treating over 350 lepers at Amrāvatī and the surrounding areas.

The Christian and Missionary Alliance is an American Protestant Mission which has its all India headquarters at Akolā. The mission started its work in Amrāvatī district in the year 1896. The main centres are at Amrāvatī, Ćāndūr and Añjangāṅv with five out-stations. The mission was organised in the year 1930. Within the past ten years, the nine churches became fully self-supporting. The communicant members number 375. The members pay their monthly subscriptions in closed envelopes. The work of the mission, while supplementing the work of the church, is quite separate as an organisation.

The mission operates a free Christian library and a reading room in Amrāvatī. Each church has Sunday schools for Christian children where religious knowledge is imparted to them. There are young mens' and women's societies in each church. These activities are voluntary and a part of regular ministry.

It was from Acalpūr in 1874 that attempts were made to evangelise the Korkus, but these failed and it was not till 1899 when the mission had been established at Cikhaldarā for three years that the great famine gave the Fathers a second chance. A few families and some orphans were then gathered together and formed into a village of about 160 souls to which the name of Marianpur was given. A chapel of Saint Ann was consecrated. The first efforts however at the evangelisation of the Korkus had been not by a missionary but by an officer of government Mr. J. Mulheran, who about 1860 was deputed to make a survey of the Melghāṭ and to report on its inhabitants. During his tour he used freely to preach to the jungle tribes; and he appealed to the bishop of Calcutta to despatch a missionary for the work. However, before his appeal could be met, he died suddenly. In 1870 the Rev. H. Haden and his brother were appointed but stayed only a short time, being relieved in 1874 by the Rev. H. Norton. A short sketch of the Korkus as well as a Korku grammar and several translations into that tongue were compiled by the Rev. E. F. Ward, who settled at Acalpūr in 1885. In 1889 the Korku and Central India Hill Mission, organised by the energies of Lt.-Colonel Oldham (of the Hyderābād contingent) took over from the Rev. A. Norton the work which he had carried on since 1874. The mission did a good work in the famine of 1896-97. Besides, the mission did a good deal of work in the field of education. In the year 1950 the property of the mission was transferred to the Central India Baptist Mission which worked since 1945 with the Korkus and the Central India Hill Mission. The Central India Baptist Mission (Protestants) has its headquarters at Acalpūr. The mission has an affiliation to a branch of the Conservative Baptist Foreign Mission Society with headquarters at Wheaton, Illinois, U.S.A.

There are now 19 missions, 12 pastors and preachers and about 550 communicant members in the district. The mission has no church building of its own but regular church services are held. The mission serves humanity through a hospital for lepers where medical treatment at reasonable rates is given There are three hostels for boys and girls, two dispensaries and six libraries. These provide vocational and religious guidance and free reading privileges to the public. Very moderate fee is charged to every member of the library. There is a Lay Workers' Institute at Cikhaldarā where social and moral uplift work is done. At Toṇḍgāṅv camp a religious *melā* is held every year. The site of the camp is owned by the Evangelical Baptist Sanghatna. All boys and girls and men and women from different places join and participate in the *melā*. Most of the Christians are farmers

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CHRISTIANS.

and some have taken to professions like carpentry, teaching and medical helpers.

The Church of India, Burma and Ceylon, a Protestant Mission, Anglican, has its headquarters at Nāgpūr under the diocese of Nāgpūr. The Bishop is the head for Vidarbha and Madhya Pradeś State. There are church buildings at Amrāvatī, Acalpūr and Baḍnerā. The buildings are of the shape ot the Holy Cross and a piece of a good architecture. They are dedicated to St. Thomas and St. Andrews. The cemeteries at these places, where most of the foreigners have been buried, are partially closed due to the opening of local cemeteries used by all other missions.

A priest in charge of the Vidarbha region appointed by Bishop is stationed at Amrāvatī. He conducts holy communion and other services once in every month in each church. The total number of communicants is about 60. At Amrāvatī most of the members are old settlers of Amrāvatī, and government servants who stay for a few years. At Baḍnerā most of the members are from the railways while at Acalpūr most of them are teachers and private businessmen.

The United Church of Northern India (Protestant) has a church building dedicated to the memory of Rev. Sidoba Misal at Amrāvatī. The headquarters of the mission is at Nāgpūr. A priest in charge of Amrāvatī, serves about 15 families with about 35 communicants in Amrāvatī. A Sunday school for children, fellowships for young men and women are the activities of the church.

Rituals and Ceremonies.

The aim that one should save his soul applying to oneself the merits obtained for mankind by Christ governs the ritualistic customs observed by a Christian. The seven Sacraments, viz., (1) Baptism, (2) Confirmation, (3) Penance, (4) Holy Eucharist, (5) Extreme Unction, (6) Holy Order and (7) Matrimony, make these merits of graces available to the mankind. Of these Matrimony and Baptism, considered as important in all Christian churches, are described below.

Baptism.

The rite of baptism is that laid down by the Roman Catholic Church. The child is brought to the church for Baptism accompanied by two persons, called as God parents, who answer in the name of the child the questions put by the priest to the child. The priest exercises the evil spirit or influence that may have dominion and then anoints the child with holy oil. After being ascertained of the desire of the child for being baptised, answer coming from the God parents, the really essential rite of baptism is performed. The name by which the child is addressed remains henceforth as the Christian name of the child. Most Christian churches ordinarily administer for baptism to children. However, they also provide for adult baptism in the case of adults converted to Christianity.

Matrimony.

The Christian churches have developed a solemn ceremony about marriage, a very important event in the life of a human being.

Matrimony.

The bride dressed all in white with her head covered with a white veil and crowned with a wreath of white flowers comes into the church resting on the hand of her father or some elder male relative. After interrogating both the bride as well as the bridegroom about their free consent to the marriage and after their affirmative replies the priest solemnises the marriage.

Among the Mahārāṣṭrian, Tamil, and Malyāḷi Christians of this region it is still customary to tie a *maṅgalsutra* made of gold thread and black beads round the neck of the bride after it has been blessed by the priest.

Death and Funeral.

Christians are very much concerned about the administration of a priest to a sick person in danger of death. On sickness taking a serious turn, a priest is sent for, who comes to the house to hear the dying man's confession and to give him the communion. The priest (if a Roman Catholic) then gives him absolution, i.e., in God's name forgives his sins. Anointing the vital senses of the dying man with oil the priest prays God to forgive the dying man for whatever wrong he might have done.

Christians bury their dead. The well-to-do lay the body in coffin and the poor carry it in church bier. The hands are tied together across the chest and small crucifix is placed in them. When the body or coffin is lowered in the grave the priest first puts a few handfuls of earth over it and then the mourners follow. On the seventh and on the thirteenth day, and at the end of the year, and in some cases, every year solemn prayers are sung for the repose of the soul of the dead. All persons who attend are given a festive dinner or breakfast. Black clothes are a mark of mourning and the close relatives of the dead person observe mourning for one year during which period they do not attend public or social functions.

MARRIAGE AND MORALS.

The ethics of marriage differs from community to community. While the Hindus consider it as the sacrament sanctifying the body and an essential pre-requisite for the attainment of *mokṣa*, the Muslims take it as a contract.

Hindus.

Marriages among the Hindus are governed by rules and restrictions falling under the categories of endogamy, exogamy and hypergamy. A Hindu may not marry outside his caste or his particular sub-caste which according to social custom is considered endogamous. He is confined for the choice of a wife within this group. Outside, the caste or sub-caste within which a man must marry, are a set of further sub-divisions which prohibit the marriage of persons related through males which are called endogamous groups. Marriage was prohibited within certain degrees of relationship. Marriage within the same *gotra* was prohibited. Hypergamy relates to the social rule by which a woman should be married to a man who is either her equal or her superior in rank. Such practice is widely prevalent in northern India by which men of a higher sub-caste of a caste will take in marriage a lady from lower ones but will not give their daughters in return.

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MARRIAGE AND MORALS.

Hindus.

It was customary among most of the Hindus to marry a girl before puberty. However, the position changed with the passing of the Sharada Act and other enactments.

Among the Hindus also there was diversity as far as widow marriage was concerned. The Brāhmaṇs prohibited the remarriage of widows on the ground that it was a sacrament that she could go through only once. Divorce was also prohibited. Dowry either in the form of bride-price or *huṇḍā* was customary.

Enactments.

Social usage in relation to Hindu marriage has been considerably affected by various legal enactments passed, perhaps right from 1833 when the regulation prohibiting *sati* was declared. (1) A common form of civil marriage for all communities in India was provided by the Special Marriage Act III of 1822, which made it possible for an Indian of whatever caste or creed to enter into a valid marriage with a person belonging to any caste or creed, provided the parties registered the contract of marriage, declaring *inter alia* that they did not belong to any religion[1]. This Act was amended by Act XXX of 1923, making it possible for Hindus, Buddhists, Sikhs and Jains (but not for Christians, Jews, Muhammedans and Parsees) to declare their religion and yet get their marriage registered. (2) The Child Marriage Restraint Act XIX of 1929, as amended by Act XIX of 1946, prohibited marriages of boys under 18 years of age, and girls under 14 years of age. (3) The Hindu Marriage Disabilities Removal Act XXVIII of 1946 validated marriages between parties (a) belonging to the same *gotra* or (b) belonging to different sub-divisions of the same caste; and now (4) The Hindu Marriage Act of 1955 which abrogates and modifies all the past laws. It has made Hindu marriage now strictly adult and monogamous, has done away with the caste and *gotra* restrictions which limited the field of marriage, and has set down definite conditions under which a degree of nullity and further of dissolution of marriage could be obtained.

As marriage from the Hindu point of view created an indissoluble tie between the husband and the wife, divorce was not known to the general Hindu law. Neither party to a marriage could, therefore, divorce the other unless divorce was allowed by custom. The Indian Divorce Act, 1869, provided *inter alia* for dissolution of marriage, but it applied only to cases where "the petitioner or respondent professed the Christian religion" (Section 2 of the Act). However, according to the Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, reliefs by way of judicial separation, declaration of nullity of marriage and divorce are recognized (Sections 10 to 13).

Muslims.

Amongst Muslims celebacy is condemned by the prophet and every Muslim is enjoined to marry by his religion. The prohibited degrees, amongst Muslims, include consanguinity, affinity, fosterage with the wife's sister during the lifetime of the

[1]G. S. Ghurye, Caste and Class in India (1950), p. 165.

wife, of the wife of another until the period of *iddat* probation has expired, and polytheists.

According to the *Koran* and traditions, Muslims are allowed to have four wives. However, except in case of wealthy Muslims a second wife is rarely taken.

FOOD.

The dietary of the people is influenced mainly by the availability of the chief agricultural produce and of fish and other animal food. The financial status of the region is also an important factor determining the dietary. Formerly Brāhmans, Jains, Mārvāris, etc., were strictly vegetarian. However, the two-fold classification into vegetarians and non-vegetarians is not very rigid today as it was in the past. Christians and Muslims are mostly non-vegetarians. To eat beef is a taboo for Hindus as cow is considered sacred by them. The Muslims generally do not take pork, it being their religion's taboo.

The vegetarian food consists of bread prepared of jowar, *āmṭi* or *varaṇ* prepared by the mixture of boiled pulses with condiments and spices and vegetables like potato, *vāṅgi* (brinjal). bheṇḍi (Lady's fingers), onion, cabbage, etc. On the days of feasts and festivals, the menu comprise rice and some sweet dish many times prepared with milk. Those who observe fast on specific days, eat fruits and dishes prepared of *vari*, *sābudāṇā*, *śiṅgāḍe*, groundnut, etc. The non-vegetarian food comprises preparations from meat, eggs, fowl and fish alongwith other articles of food.

The agricultural labourers and other artisans whose duties involve physical labour take food twice a day, in the afternoon and in the evening and a breakfast (*nyāhāri*) in the morning before they set out for work. *Nyāhāri* generally consists of bread prepared from jowar or bajra with *caṭaṇi* (chilli, groundnut, salt and garlic ground together) and onion. Tea has become a common habit and is taken in the morning or taken with breakfast.

Their afternoon (lunch) and evening food (dinner) consists of *bhākarī* with *kālvaṇ* (curry prepared from pulses) or *zuṇkā* made of gram flour. Rice and wheat are consumed on festive occasions such as weddings, family festivals and the days like *Dasarā* and *Hoḷi*.

The middle class and well-to-do people eat rice, vegetables, curd, buttermik, etc. They are more particular about the timings and the manner of taking their food. They sit on a flat wooden stool (*pāṭ*) and meal is served in dining plates of metal (stainless steel and brass) with bowls for curry and metal glasses for water. Their diet includes side dishes like pickles of various sorts, *pāpaḍ* and *kośimbir*.

Generally they take tea in the morning and take their morning meals round about 10 o'clock before they leave their homes for work.

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The main sweet dishes prepared on festive occasions are *Puranpoḷi* (wheat bread stuffed with gram dal cooked with *guḍ*), *śirā*, *puri*, *śrikhaṇḍ*, *bāsundi*, etc. Among the non-vegetarians, chief dishes prepared are mutton and chicken, fried or in the form of curry, khima and preparations from eggs.

Milk of buffalo and cow is very common in use. However, goat milk is also used by the poorer people. Fruits do not always constitute the item of common dietary. Fruits like bananas, guavas, oranges and mangoes are often taken by common people during the season.

It is customary to prepare special types of food for special occasions, details of which are given in the section on Holidays.

DRESS.

The mode of dress in Amrāvatī district is more or less the same as elsewhere in Mahārāṣṭra. It is however more akin to the mode of dress in the Berār region. The articles of dress and the style of wearing them have undergone considerable changes during the last few decades. A man having moustaches, whiskers, top-knot of a bunch of hair on the clean shaven head, dressed in *dhotar*, *bārabaṇḍi*, *pheṭā* or *cakri pāgoṭe* and *uparṇe* is not to be found so very commonly, though by no means rare.

The most common articles of apparel for a male are *dhotar*, shirt and pyjama. These articles continue to be worn in rural as well as urban areas. The younger generation is very particular about dress. The loose pyjama, pant, shirt or bush-shirt are fast taking the place of the old mode of dress. Formerly, the male upper garments were *uparṇe*, *bārābanḍī*, *kuḍtā*, *sadarā*, *pairaṇ*, *kabji*, *aṅgarkhā* and *ḍagalā*. The head dress comprised *cakri pāgoṭe*, *pagaḍi*, *muṅḍāse*, *rumāl*, or *paṭkā*. Now, it is fashionable to go bare-headed. The educated gentry uses chappals, shoes or slippers as footwear.

The traditional Hindu woman's dress is the full Marāṭhā *sāḍi* of nine yards, and a *coḷi* reaching to the waist and covering both the back and chest, the ends being tied or buttoned in front. The *sāḍi* is known as *lugaḍe*. The mode of wearing it favoured by women of the upper classes is with hind pleats tucked into the waist at the back centre. Women from the poor peasantry allow it to hang from the waist and draw its end (*padar*) which covers the bossom and back over the head. Sarees of five or six yards in length have become fashionable for the last twenty years among young ladies in towns and villages as well. The saree is invariably worn over a petticoat. The quality of the wear exhibits a variegated and aesthetic sense. Skirts are getting more and more popular. The fashion of wearing sleeveless blouses is also discernible. New types of *coḷis* in the form of blouses with low-cut necks and close-fitting sleeves are also quite popular.

The dress of child of either sex is more or less the same. The child is usually dressed in *jhabale*, *āṅgaḍe*, *laṅgoṭ* and *ṭopare*. When the girl grows about two years old she is dressed

in frocks or *ăngi*. A boy is dressed in shirt or bush-shirt and *caḍḍi* (shorts). In the well-to-do families, boys are dressed in shirt or *pairaṇ, caḍḍi* and *tumān* or *colṇā*. Girls start using skirts at the age of eight or nine.

Quite a considerable number of Muslims are dressed like the Hindus. However, there is definite difference between the typical Muslim dress and the Hindu dress. Most of the orthodox Muslims and especially women, retain their traditional mode of dress. The principal articles of dress comprise *khamij* (shirt), *śervāṇi, pyjama, cuḍidār pyjama, salvār, luṅgi* and *pairaṇ*. Women are dressed in *khamij* and *cuḍidār pyjama* or *salvār*, and *oḍhaṇī*. Men put on *khamij, pyjama* or *salvār, luṅgi* and *pairaṇ*. The head-dress consists of Turki cap, Jinna cap, or a turban. The Bohorās, Khojās and Memans use preformed turbans, and put on loose trousers, shirts and long coats while going out.

Rich and middle class ladies observe *purdāh*, when they go out. The progressive Muslim families have discarded the *purdāh* system.

ORNAMENTS.

Ornaments have a typical place in every home, and women have an added attraction for them. They have an inherent instinct to present a charming appearance with beauty aids and ornaments made of gold, silver, diamonds and jewellery. However, in rural areas ornaments are specially considered more as store of value rather than for their decorative value or their use as beauty aids, and as such ruralfolk is rather reluctant to spend much on the goldsmith's labour resulting into ornaments being specimens of clumsy form and workmanship.

The type of ornaments used differs with men and women, and boys and girls. The pattern of ornaments also differs from community to community, and from caste to caste. Hindus consider yellow metal to be sacred and as such they would not wear gold ornaments below the waist to maintain the dignity of the holy material. A golden bead is also used in the *maṅgalsutra* that is worn by Hindu women of Maharāṣṭra. Generally Brāhmaṇ and Marāṭhā women will not have any ornaments for head and arms of any material baser than gold. Gold and silver in ornaments is considered to have a protective magical effect that is attributed to charms and amulets. Ayurveda considers gold to have a medicinal value too. Due to constantly rising prices of gold, silver and precious stones the tendency is witnessed to substitute these articles by alloys, cultured pearls and synthetic stones. Till recently, the use of ornaments was very common and customary amongst men. They were *bhikbāḷi*, a gold ring set with pearls and pendant-emerald hanging by the upper lobe, gold *salkaḍi* or a *poci* on the wrist, a *goph* or chain worn with a locket round the neck, silver girdle and gold armlet, pearl necklace, etc. The ornaments commonly used by men are the gold finger ring and the silver chain girdle called *kargoṭā* used round the waist.

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ORNAMENTS.

The fashions and mode of female ornaments have undergone considerable changes during the last few decades. The frantic affinity of the female mind for decorative ornaments has subsided to a great extent. Women from the aristocratic families in the past used to wear a variety of ornaments. The head ornaments comprised *mud, agraphul, rakhdi, ketki-kevdā, gulābāce-phul, bindi-bijorā, candra-surya, gonde-phul,* etc. The group of neck ornaments consisted of *candrahār, caplahār, bakulihār, puṣpahār, mohanmāl, putalyācimāl, bormāl, kolhāpūri sāj, ekdāṇi, sari, cittāng, vajratik, thuśi, petyā, tanmanī,* all made of gold. Ornaments of pearls, diamonds and precious stones were to be found only in the rich families. Gold bangles, *patlyā, gotha, bājuband,* and *tode* of various patterns were more common among the well-to-do. The peasantry and the class of labourers used to have ornaments made of silver. *Tode* made of silver were very common among the womenfolk in the rural areas of the district.

However, most of these ornaments are either uncommon or they have undergone a thorough change in their form. Heavy gold ornaments are not popular here. Head ornaments have almost gone out of fashion. The ear ornaments at present comprise mainly *kudyā, ear-rings* and *karṇaphul.* Among the neck ornaments *mangalsutra* is the most important which is incumbent on every '*suvāsini*'. Formerly, it was made of black beads with gold half-beads in the centre. Now-a-days the beads are woven in gold-strings and is fashioned on different patterns. The *candrahār, caplahār, mohanmāl, puṣpahār, ekdāṇi, tanmaṇi, laffā* are more in vogue among the Hindus. Nose ornaments are rarely used barring *nath* and *camki.* A pair of *jodavi* (silver rings in the toes) and *virolyā* are generally prepared for the bride at the time of marriage.

Child ornaments falling under the group of wristlets comprise *bindalyā, mangatyā* and *kaḍitode.* The necklaces put on by children are mainly *goph. hasli, sākhli, taiti* and chain lockets. *Sākhali* and *sarpoli* are used on the waist and *ghungarvāle* are worn on the ankles. These ornaments are made either of gold or silver.

Under the Gold Control Order, promulgated by the Government of India in 1962, the manufacture of ornaments of primary gold is prohibited. The order, however, permits ornaments of 14 carrat purity, which have now replaced ornaments made from pure gold.

HOUSES AND HOUSING.

Housing is one of the indices of the cultural development of any section of society. Economic considerations heavily weighed against better housing in the past. Houses of majority of the people, and especially those of the peasants, craftsmen and labourers, were mere dwellings providing shelter against sun, wind, cold and rain. The prime consideration for a house builder in the past was to ensure safety and protection.

The pattern of houses and housing has changed to a great extent during the past few decades. The change has been more definite and marked in the towns. However town planning is implemented only in a few towns.

Excepting the newly built houses in Amravati town, most of the urban dwellings are built in bricks and mortar and have a stone foundation. The walls are plastered with mortar or cement.

Houses owned by the old aristocracy are built round a quadrangle with walls of stone or burnt bricks, tiled roofs and verandas. Galvanised sheets are used for roofing purposes. These houses are generally one or two-storeyed. The most remarkable feature of these houses is exhibited in the spacious and imposing gate which leads to the quadrangle and a congregation of rooms. The congregation comprises broad verandas, a watch-room (*devaḍi*), store rooms, kitchen and living rooms. On one side of the quadrangle there is a cattle-shed and store of agricultural implements. Very often there is a small well and bathrooms. But houses of this type are gradually becoming unpopular.

The majority of the houses in the district are built with burnt bricks, dressed stone, teak-wood beams and poles, bamboo ceiling, and have tiled or flat roofs. The building structure is based upon strong stone foundation, and is supported by teak-wood poles and thick side walls. The walls are commonly built of bricks and mortar; but clay walls are by no means uncommon. The rich often have attractive wood-carving on the fronts of their houses. Houses occasionally have a flat top (*dhābā*) of whitish grey earth; but more frequently they have sloping roofs of tiles or galvanised sheets. It is only the poorest, generally living on the outskirts of villages, who use thatch.

Very few houses in villages are properly ventilated. An average house is designed to provide hardly a couple of small windows, a couple of apartments and a kitchen which is, very often, adjoining to the bathing corner. The floor is made of earth, whereas the bamboo ceiling allows the slow percolation of earth from above. In a majority of cases, the upper floor of the house is utilised as store room.

The rich have independent bungalows comprising a veranda, a drawing room, bedrooms, a kitchen, a parlour and a pantry. The rooms are so arranged as to have an independent access to each. The walls are of stone or brick masonry in lime or cement mortar. The doors are panelled or glazed. They are built with due consideration for ventilation and convenience. The R.C.C. constructions are finding greater patronage among the rich gentry, at Amrāvatī, Baḍnerā and Acalpūr. The bungalow type houses in the camp area of Amrāvatī city are built with due consideration for architectural designs. The Sāmnagar, Ambikānagar and Ṭopenagar areas of Amrāvatī city are developed on accepted principles of town planning. A few housing co-operative societies have come up in Amrāvatī, which provide independent flats.

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HOUSES AND HOUSING.

For the last two decades there has been a shortage of houses all over the district. The housing problem is, however, more acute in towns. The mounting cost of construction and shortage of the requisite building materials have arrested the growth of the building industry. This has resulted in the shortage of good houses in the district.

According to the 1961 census, there are 3,76,364 occupied houses which housed the population of 12,32,780 in the district. Of these, 2,82,372 houses are in rural areas and 93,992 in urban areas. As many as 27,973 houses were vacant at the time of census. The following table gives the statistics of various categories of houses as per the 1961 Census.

TABLE No. 13

HOUSES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1961

Category (1)	Rural (2)	Urban (3)	Total (4)
1. Houses vacant at the time of house listing.	19,272	8,701	27,973
2. Dwellings	192,605	63,734	256,339
3. Shop-*cum*-Dwellings	1,299	588	1,887
4. Workshop-*cum*-Dwellings	1,954	1,313	3,267
5. Hotels, Sarais, Dharmashalas, Tourist houses and Inspection houses.	145	148	293
6. Shops excluding eating houses.. ..	2,660	3,987	6,647
7. Business houses and offices	524	800	1,324
8. Factories, workshops and worksheds..	3,117	2,391	5,508
9. Schools and other educational institutions including training classes, coaching classes and shop classes.	1,613	424	2,037
10. Restaurants, sweetmeat shops and eating places.	557	575	1,132
11. Places of entertainment (cinema theatres, clubs, gymnasiums) and community gathering (panchayat ghar).	4,486	1,385	5,871
12. Public health and medical institutions hospitals, health centres, doctors' clinics, dispensaries, etc.	344	358	702
13 Others	53,796	9,588	63,384
District Total	282,372	93,992	376,364

GAMES AND AMUSEMENTS.

The extent of amusements for the villager is much restricted and it rarely traverses the family circle. The village gossip which usually breeds at the *cāvaḍī* or the temple is further embellished at the weekly trip to the nearest market, an occasional visit to a *jatrā* or religious fair such as that at

Bairām, or more rarely a pilgrimage to a shrine of more than local celebrity. Occasionally a troupe of strolling acrobats, *Tamāsgirs, Gārudis, Nandivāles, Darveśis,* etc., visit a village, and people called to see their exhibition and enjoy the entertainment supplied. The village boys have their games such as, *Gilli dāndu* (*Viti Dāndu*), *Lonpat,* and *Ardali Purdah.* In *Viti Dāndu* (which is not unlike the English Bat Trap and Ball or Tipcat) a small stick (*Viti*) is placed with one end projecting over a hole in the ground one player strikes it smartly with a longer stick (*Dāndu*), and the others then endeavour to catch it in mid-air. If any of them does so, he has his innings and the former striker joins the field. *Lonpat* (which is a kind of Tom Tiddler's Ground or Prisoner's Base), is generally played by moonlight. The ground is marked out in squares to each of which a boy of the defending party is posted. Their opponents then try to pass through these squares and back again without being touched. If they do so they win the game. *Ardali Purdah* may be compared to "Blind Man's Buff", or perhaps to "Forfeits". The players form equal sides and a curtain is held up between them. One boy then hides close up to the curtain: and the opposite party is asked to guess his name. If they reply correctly he is blindfolded and sent off on some errand, the fun of the game consisting in watching him stumble over and knock his head against the various obstacles placed in his path. Girls have their dolls and play at housekeeping. Their amusements are naturally more of an indoor nature *Deśi Kasrat,* an Indian counterpart of the 'Swedish exercise' has been introduced in the schools.

Among men, the games most in favour are *causar* (a kind of draughts) and cards. Races of trotting bullocks are held on *Sankrānt* Day, and wrestling matches, very much of the "catch-as-catch-can" order, on *Nāg-Pañcami.* Cock fighting and also ram fighting are favoured by the lower classes, and among Gavlis he-buffalo fighting on Divali is a common diversion The beasts are fed with specially nourishing diet on the day of the contest.

Of all the village festivals the *Polā* which is perhaps the most typical in this part of the country deserves fuller description. It is a religious holiday held on the new moon day of *Śrāvaṇa* or *Bhādrapada,* after the ploughing and sowing has been done by the cultivator in honour of his greatest helper, the bullock. On that day all the bullocks of the village are gaily painted in various colours and their horns and necks covered with garlands. They assemble in one place, where stands the *gudhi,* a sacred "Maypole" of the *paṭel;* the Mahārs beating drums in front of it. and a twisted rope of *mol* grass covered with mango leaves being stretched from it to a smaller pole on the right. This rope is known as the *toran* and is dedicated to *Māruti.* Under this stands the *paṭel's* bullocks, which should be a pair without spot or blemish, all white or all red, according to the custom of the village. To the left of the pole a long line is formed of the other bullocks those of the *Paṭel* family first,

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then a pair chosen to represent the Deśmukh, a pair to represent the *Sarkār*, the *Paṭvārī's* pair and finally those of the other villagers.* All do *pujā* to the pair of bullocks under the *toraṇ*. At a given signal from the *paṭel*, his pair are led forward, the *toraṇ* is broken and the remaining pairs follow in order through the place where it has been. With this procession the ceremony ends, but no bullocks can be put to work this day, for once in the year they are granted a holiday.

CHAPTER 4—AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL POPULATION.

AGRICULTURE IS THE MAIN SOURCE OF LIVELIHOOD of the people in the district. Marathas and Malis form the bulk of Amravati husbandmen, while the Dhangars, Kolis, Korkus and Mahars work mostly as agricultural labourers. Cotton, jowar, groundnut and pulses are the main crops grown in the district. The total population of the district as per 1961 census was 1,232,780 spread over an area of 12,149.7 km.^{2} (4,691 sq. miles). The density of population per km.^{2} is 102 (263 per sq. mile).

The following table gives the number of cultivators and agricultural labourers as per 1961 census :—

TABLE No. 1

Particulars (1)	Cultivators (2)		Agricultural Labourers (3)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
District Total	1,10,079	49,754	1,48,388	1,49,847
Rural	1,00,688	46,613	1,34,667	1,36,142
Urban	9,391	3,141	13,721	13,705

The cultivators and the agricultural labourers constituted 12·97 per cent and 24·20 per cent, respectively, of the total working class population of the district.

RAINFALL.

Agriculture in the district mainly depends upon rainfall. There are no major irrigation schemes. Wells, bunds and a few tanks form the only source of irrigation. The rainfall, therefore, determines the pattern of crops, rotation of crops and the productivity of land in the district.

Broadly speaking, the district can be divided into two parts, the first consisting of the Melghat and Achalpur talukas which receive higher rainfall, and the second composed of the rest of the district receiving medium rainfall. The average rainfall of the district is 812.8 mm. (32") but varies from 736.6 mm. to

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1,524.0 mm. (29" to 60"). The dense forests of Melghat, Chikhaldara and Dharni receive heavy rainfall. Parts of the Achalpur and Morshi talukas adjoining the Satpuda ranges receive rainfall varying between 889.0 mm. (35") and 1447.8 mm. (57"). In the low-lying plains of Dhamangaon, Daryapur, Chandur, Anjangaon and Morshi, rainfall is medium.

An analysis of rainfall over the last 46 years between 1914-15 and 1959-60 shows that Chikhaldara had the highest average, viz., 1527.556 mm. (60.14"), closely followed by Dharni and Amravati. Excepting the forest areas, the degree of variation of rainfall is not high in the district. Similarly, the year to year variations are not very wide. The following table shows the average rainfall during the pre-monsoon, monsoon, post-monsoon and winter periods which was recorded at various stations from 1914-15 to 1959-60. Besides average rainfall in the four periods, the statement also gives average number of rainy days.

The monsoons start in the month of June during which about 101.6 mm. (4") to 177.8 mm. (7") rainfall is generally received. July and August are the months of heavy rainfall when 203.2 mm. (8") to 406.4 mm. (16") of rainfall are recorded. The rains normally recede from the end of October. Most of the annual rainfall is received from the south-west monsoon coming from the direction of Arabian Sea and moving towards the north east.

TABLE No. 2

AMRAVATI RAINFALL RETURNS

(Average of 46 years from 1914-15 to 1959-60 in mm.)

Stations	Pre-Monsoon 1st April to 31st May		Monsoon 1st June to 30th September		Post-Monsoon 1st October to 30th November		Winter 1st December to 31st March		Total	
	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Amravati	1·96	42 926 (1·69)	41·15	1 203·960 (47·40)	3·93	120 142 (4·73)	3·65	70·612 (2·78)	50·69	1,437·640 (56·60)
Badnera	2·07	26·162 (1·03)	40 13	752·348 (29·62)	4·07	73·152 (2·88)	3·52	42·418 (1·67)	49·79	894·080 (35·20)
Morshi	2·00	18·034 (0·71)	38·55	751·586 (29·59)	3·76	71·882 (2·83)	3·54	45·212 (1·78)	47·85	886·714 (34·91)
Chandur	1·96	18·288 (0 72)	39·24	667·258 (26·27)	3·98	58·674 (2·31)	3·26	47·244 (1 86)	48·44	791·464 (31·16)
Kholapur	1·61	19·304 (0·76)	38·20	757·936 (29·84)	3·59	78·994 (3·11)	3·24	51·816 (2·04)	46·64	908·050 (35·75)
Barur	1·96	25·908 (1·02)	44·65	866·140 (34·10)	4·00	76·708 (3·02)	4·52	49·530 1·95)	55·13	1,018·286 (40·09)

TABLE No. 2—*cont.*

Station	Pre-Monsoon 1st April to 31st May		Monsoon 1st June to 30th September		Post-Monsoon 1st October to 30th November		Winter 1st December to 31st March		Total	
	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall	No. of Rainy days	Rainfall
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Talegaon	2·72	31·750 (1·25)	41·83	830·326 (32·69)	4·28	74·930 (2·95)	3·65	60·960 (2·40)	52·48	997·966 (39·29)
Ellichpur	1·96	17·780 (0·70)	40·07	664·718 (26·17)	3·87	88·138 (3·47)	3·46	47·752 (1·88)	49·36	818·388 (32·22)
Daryapur	1·65	15·494 (0·61)	34·54	611·378 (24·07)	3·72	70·866 (2·79)	2·74	41·910 (1·65)	41·65	739·648 (29·12)
Anjangaon	1·76	14·986 (0·59)	36·35	681·228 (26·82)	4·11	97·028 (3·82)	3·39	48·006 (1·89)	45·61	841·248 (33·12)
Chandur Bazar	1·98	13·716 (0·54)	40·89	705·104 (27·76)	3·46	78·232 (3·08)	3·87	43·180 (1·70)	50·30	840·232 (33·08)
Chikhaldara	3·11	28·194 (1·11)	64·46	1,326·134 (52·21)	5·46	115·316 (4·54)	3·93	57·912 (2·28)	76·96	1,527·556 (60·14)
Dharni	1·35	..	48·55	..	3·74	..	2·17	..	55·81	..

Note—Figures in brackets are in inches.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

AGRICULTURAL SEASONS.

Kharif and *rabi* are the main agricultural seasons in Amravati district. The *kharif* season commences from 7th June, *i.e.*, from the first day of the *Mrug Nakshatra* and continues up to the end of November. The south-west monsoon starts from June. This is mainly useful for pre-sowing preparatory tillage of the soil. The regular south-west rains set in by the fourth week of June. The sowing operations start with these rains and last for over 10 days. Special importance is attached to sowing of cotton crop during the *Mrug Nakshatra*. Early sowing of cotton results in good yield. About 38.1 mm. (one and a half inches) to 50.80 mm. (two inches) rainfall in a day is deemed sufficient for sowing operations.

Farmers start sowing operations with the onset of the monsoon. Paddy, which is mainly grown in Melghat, is drilled in the fields by the end of June.

The *kharif* crops occupied an area of 634,821.216 hectares (1,568,676 acres) in 1961-62.

The *rabi* season commences from the middle of October. The major *rabi* crops in this district are wheat, gram and linseed. Sowing of wheat and gram begins from the first week of October. They are sown in non-irrigated fields. The crops in irrigated fields can be sown later. Wheat and gram are ready for harvesting in March. Linseed is harvested in February.

Besides the principal crops enumerated above, a number of fruits, vegetables and condiment crops are produced. Of these, chillis, brinjals, lady's fingers and tomatoes are transplanted in July. Picking of these crops begins in September and continues up to February. Winter vegetables which are sown in irrigated land are cauli-flower, knol-kol, cabbage, tomato, fenugreek, carrot, green peas and green coriander (*kothimbir*). Sowing operations of these crops commence from October. Picking starts from November and lasts till February. Summer vegetables are also produced in the vicinity of Amravati, Morshi, Warud, Achalpur and Dhamangaon towns. They are brinjal, carrot, pumpkin (*bhopala*), lady's fingers, *kakadi*, *tondali* and *ratali*. These are produced only in irrigated land.

SOILS.

The soils of Amravati district have been developed on the hilly and undulating topography. The soils, therefore, show a wide variation in their depth. The soils on the hills and slopes have shallow to medium depth while in the low-lying areas and river valleys, deep soils are formed due to the accumulation and deposition of the soils from uplands. Thus three main soil types are obtained, viz., (1) Shallow soils, (2) Medium deep soils and (3) Deep soils. The annual rainfall varies from 721.36 mm. (28.4 inches) at Anjangaon to 1,701.8 mm. (67.0 inches) at Chikhaldara as against the district average of 924.56 mm. (36.4 inches). The soils of the district are derived from the Deccan trap (a basaltic rock). The typical soil profiles of the three types of soils and their physico-chemical properties are given in table Nos. 3 and 4.

TABLE No. 3

ANALYSIS OF SOILS, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Description	Sample depth	PH	T. S. S.	Moisture	Mechanical analysis			
					Coarse sand %	Fine sand %	Silt %	Clay %
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Profile No. 1 ..	0—0·23 m. (0"—9")	8·3	0·3	8	6	11	16	52
Profile No. 2 ..	0—0·28 m. (0"—11")	8·6	0·5	10	4	17	15	46
	0·28—0·38 m. (11"—15")	8·5	0·4	11	16	13	27	20
	0·38—0·46 m. (15"—18")	8·4	0·4	8	10	24	16	30
Profile No. 3 ..	0—0·15 m. (0"—6")	8·6	0·5	11	3	4	16	56
	0·15—0·41 m. (6"—16")	8·5	0·5	11	1	6	13	59
	0·41—0·43 m. (16"—17")	8·6	0·4	12	1	12	10	54
Profile No. 4 ..	0—0·18 m. (0"—7")	8·6	0·4	9	4	12	21	48
	0·18—0·64 m. (7"—25")	8·6	0·4	9	3	8	23	32
	0·64—0·97 m. (25"—38")	8·6	0·4	10	4	16	15	48
	0·97—1·52 m. (38"—60")	8·4	0·3	10	8	12	35	25
Profile No. 5 ..	0—0·25 m. (0"—10")	8·4	0·3	7	..	17	21	44
	0·25—0·58 m. (10"—23")	8·3	0·3	8	2	7	17	60
	0·58—1·07 m. (23"—42")	8·2	0·3	8	2	9	15	59
	1·07—1·52 m. (42"—60")	8·2	0·3	8	7	1	15	62
Profile No. 6 ..	0—0·36 m. (0"—14")	8·5	0·4	8	2	11	20	54
	0·36—0·91 m. (14"—36")	8·4	0·7	9	3	10	21	51
	0·91—1·32 m. (36"—52")	8·5	0·4	10	..	12	18	54
	0·91—1·52 m. (52"—60")	8·6	0·5	10	2	10	19	52

Description	Sample depth	Exchangeable basis			Total	$CaCO_3$ %	Organic matter %	Nitrogen	Available P_2O_5 mgm. %	Available K_2O mgm. %
		Ca. m.e. %	Mg. m.e. %	Na+K m.e. %						
(1)	(2)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
Profile No. 1 ..	0—0·23 m. (0″—9″)	47	14	2	63	6	1·00	0·05	12	8
Profile No. 2 ..	0—0·28 m. (0″—11″)	61	3	2	66	8	1·17	0·05	12	16
	0·28—0·38 m. (11″—15″)	..	5	2	..	14	1·00			
	0·38—0·46 m. (15″—18″)	..	2	1	..	11	0·88			
Profile No. 3 ..	0—0·15 m. (0″—6″)	60	22	2	84	10	1·21	0·05	13	16
	0·15—0·41 m. (6″—16″)	60	16	2	78	9	1·17			
	0·41—0·43 m. (16″—17″)	57	9	3	69	10	1·14			
Profile No. 4 ..	0—0·18 m. (0″—7″)	45	7	2	54	5	1·00	0·06	21	32
	0·18—0·64 m. (7″—25″)	49	10	1	60	5	0·67			
	0·64—0·97 m. (25″—38″)	43	12	2	57	7	0·57			
	0·97—1·52 m. (38″—60″)	30	13	2	45	10	0·33			
Profile No. 5 ..	0—0·25 m. (0″—10″)	40	17	3	60	10	0·91	0·04	18	27
	0·25—0·58 m. (10″—21″)	45	11	2	58	6	1·05			
	0·58—1·07 m. (23″—42″)	43	14	2	59	7	0·91			
	1·07—1·52 m. (42″—60″)	39	18	2	59	6	0·91			
Profile No. 6 ..	0—0·36 m. (0″—14″)	50	8	3	61	3	0·67	0·04	19	19
	0·36—0·91 m. (14″—36″)	46	7	2	55	5	1·00			
	0·91—1·32 m. (36″—52″)	39	15	3	57	4	1·52			
	0·91—1·52 m. (52″—60″)	33	19	3	55	7	1·14			

TABLE No. 4

TYPICAL SOIL PROFILES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Type of Soil	Shallow Soil.	Medium Deep Soil		Deep Soil		
Village and Taluka ..	Shiwani, Taluka Chandur.	Tiwsa, Taluka Chandur.		Paratwada, Taluka Achalpur.	Daryapur, Taluka Daryapur.	Shirajgaon Bund, Taluka Achalpur.
Profile No.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Relief	Gentle slope.	Gentle Slope 1·5 per cent.	Gentle slope 1·5 per cent.	Gentle sloping.	Flat land.	Gentle slope.
Erosion	Severely eroded.	Moderately eroded.	Moderately eroded.	Uneroded.	Uneroded.	Slightly eroded.
Drainage Condition ..	Excessive.	Good.	Good.	Fair.	Fair	Fair.
Sub-soil Water Table	50 ft.	10 to 15 ft.	10 to 15 ft.	50 to 60 ft.	55 ft.	50 ft.
Land use and General Remarks.	Under cultivation, Kharif Jowar.	Under cultivation, Cotton crops.	Under cultivation, Cotton.	Groundnut.	Cotton.	Cultivated Land Cotton.

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Horizon ..	I	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III	IV
Thickness	0·23 m. (9″)	0·28 m. (11″)	0·10 m. (4″)	0·08 m. (3″)	0·15 m. (6″)	0·25 m. (10″)	0·28 m. (11″)	0·18 m. (7″)	0·46 m. (18″)	0·33 m. (13″)	0·56 m. (22″)
Colour	Dark brown	Dark brown.	Greyish brown.	Yellowish	Greyish black.	Greyish black.	Black.	Black.	Black.	Black.	Grey.
Structure	Clay.	Clayey.	Sandy Clay Loam.	Sandy Clay Loam.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey Loam.
Consistency ..	Blocky	Blocky clods breaking into crumbs and nuts.	Single grain.	Structureless.	Blocky.	Platy.	Platy.	Granular.	Granular.	Blocky.	Indefinite.
Texture . ..	Hard.	Hard.	Friable.	Loose and friable.	Hard.	Slightly friable.	Sticky.	Loose.	Friable.	More compact.	Loose.

TABLE No. 4—*cont.*

TYPICAL SOIL PROFILES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Horizon	I	II	III	I	II	III	IV
Thickness	0·25 m. (10″)	0·33 m. (13″)	0·94 m. (37″)	0·36 m. (14″)	0·56 m. (22″)	0·41 m. (16″)	0·20 m. (8″)
Colour	Brown.	Brown.	Dark brown.	Black.	Black.	Deep black.	Dark brown.
Structure	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.	Clayey.
Consistency	Blocky.	Blocky.	Prismatic.	Blocky.	Blocky.	Blocky.	Blocky.
Texture	Hard.	Moderately friable.	Compact.	Hard.	Compact.	Compact.	Slightly compact.

Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc.	Dry, cracks and plant roots visible.	Upper 6" dry, and then little moist, vertical cracks and roots appearing.	Moist, admixture of lime nodules and murum.	Profused admixture of lime nodules and murum.	Vertical cracks and plant roots up to 6" lime.	Few lime nodules.	Very moist, very few lime particles.	Dry, roots visible, white lime concretions present.	Moist, roots present, lime nodules.	Less moist, lime nodules present.	Dry, lime concretions profusely diffused.
Sample Depth ..	0-0·23 m. (0-9")	0-0·28 m. (0-11")	0·28 m.—0·38 m. (11"-15")	0·38 m—0·46 m. (15"-18")	0-0·15 m. (0-6")	1·15 m.—0·41 m. (6"-16")	0·41 m.—0·69 m. (16"-27")	0-0·18 m. (0-7")	0·18 m.—0·64 m. (7"-25")	0·64 m.—0·97 m. (25"-38")	0·97 m.—1·52 m. (38"-60")
	Below 9" disintegrated reddish coloured murum.	Below 18" disintegrated yellowish brown murum.			Below 27" disintegrated yellowish brown soft murum.			Same layer continues below.			

Miscellaneous concretions, roots, moisture, etc.	Dry, roots of crops, few white and black concretions.	Little moist, roots of crops, few white and black concretions.	Moist, few roots of crops, black and white concretions increased in depth.	Dry, roots and white concretions present,	Little moist, roots present, white small concretions.	More moist, white concretions and roots present.	Moist, white concretions present.
Sample Depth ..	0—0·25 m. (0"-10")	0·25 m.—0·58 m. (10"-33")	0·58 m.—1·07 m. (23"-42") 1·07 m—1·52 m. (42"-60")	0—0·36 m. (0"-14")	0·36 m.—0·91 m. (14"-36")	0·91 m.—1·32 m. (36"-52")	1·32 m.—1·52 m. (52"-60")
	Same layer continues below.			Same layer continues below.			

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Shallow Soils.

The shallow soils of Amravati district are dark brown in colour, clayey in texture and Blocky in structure. Their PH value is 8.3 and they contain 0.3 per cent total soluble salts. The soils have 52 per cent clay and 16 per cent silt. Besides, they contain 6.0 per cent Calcium carbonate and about 1.00 per cent organic matter. The soils have high exchange capacity with 47 m.e. per cent of Calcium, 14 m.e. per cent Magnesium and 2 m.e. per cent of Sodium and Potassium. The fertility of the soils is low with 0.05 per cent of Nitrogen, 12 mgm. per cent of available Phosphate and 8 mgm. per cent of available Potash. These soils are suitable only for the cultivation of the *kharif* crop. They respond to the application of fertilisers.

Medium Deep Soils.

The surface layer of these medium deep soils is dark brown or greyish black. They possess clayey texture and blocky structure. The PH value of the soil profiles varies from 8.4 to 8.6 with total soluble salts from 0.4 to 0.5 per cent. Although the surface layer of these soils is clayey in texture, the lower layers show variation. Sometimes they are less clayey and sandy clay loam in texture. The Calcium carbonate varies from 1 to 3 per cent and organic matter from 0.88 to 1.21 per cent. The exchangeable capacity is also quite high comprising Calcium 57 to 61 m.e. per cent, exchangeable Magnesium 3 to 22 m.e. per cent and, exchangeable Sodium-Potassium 1 to 3 m.e. per cent. So far as fertility is concerned, these soils are fairly good and if cultivated intensively give good yields. The Nitrogen varies from 0.05 to 0.06 per cent, available Phosphate from 13 to 21 mgm. per cent and available Potash from 16 to 32 mgm. per cent.

Deep Soils

The deep soils of the district are mainly found in the river valleys of Purna and Wardha. They are known for their high production of cotton crop. The three soil profiles (numbers 4, 5 and 6) whose details are presented in table number 4 are typical profiles of deep soils of the district. Though there is not much variation in the soils, the three profiles show slight differences among themselves. The soil profile No. 4 shows a coarser structure in the lower layers having sample depth of 0.97—1.52 metres (38"—60"). These layers are loamy in texture and are, therefore, well-drained. The soil profile number 5 shows an increase of clay content with depth and compactness. These soils will have, therefore, impeded drainage. The soil profile number 6 reveals tendency towards alkalisation with increase of PH value and total soluble salts in lower layers. On the whole, it can be safely said that soils of Amravati district are very fertile and highly suitable for the cotton crop.

The PH value of soils in this group varies between 8.2 and 8.6 per cent with total soluble salts from 0.3 to 0.7 per cent. The Calcium Carbonate varies from 3 to 10 per cent and Organic matter from 0.33 per cent to 1.52 per cent. The exchange capacity is high with exchangeable Calcium 30 to 49 m.e. per cent, Magnesium 7 to 18 m.e. per cent and Sodium and Potassium together 3 to 10 m.e. per cent. The Nitrogen content in deep

SOILS.
Deep Soils.

soils varies between 0.04 and 0.06 per cent, available Phosphate between 18 and 21 mgm. per cent and available Potash from 19 to 32 mgm. per cent.

Amravati is one of the major cotton producing districts of Maharashtra. This is due, in a large measure, to the suitability of soils and climatic factors. With intensive cultivation and use of fertilisers it may be possible to increase the per acre yield of cotton, still further.

LAND UTILISATION.

The total geographical area of the district in 1960-61 was 1,220,615.730 hectares (3,013,866 acres). Table No. 5 gives a statement of cultivated and uncultivated area in Amravati district in 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61.

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TABLE No. 5

CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED AREA IN EACH TALUKA OF AMRAVATI DISTRICT—1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61

(In hectares)

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Total geographical area (3)	Forests (4)	Barren and unculturable land (5)	Land put to non-agricultural uses (6)	Culturable waste (7)	Permanent pastures and other grazing lands (8)
Amravati	1958-59	220,858·650 (545,330)	12,836·070 (31,694)	3,561·975 (8,795)	5,973·345 (14,749)	4,388 175 (10,835)	11,034·225 (27,245)
	1959-60	220,858·650 (545,330)	12,836·070 (31,694)	3,561·975 (8,795)	5,973·345 (14,749)	4,388·175 (10,835)	11,034·225 (27,245)
	1960-61	220,858·650 (545,330)	12,957·570 (31,994)	3,561·975 (8,795)	5,973·345 (14,749)	3,938·625 (9,725)	11,034·225 (27,245)
Chandur	1958-59	179,760·465 (443,853)	10,086·120 (24,904)	2,285·415 (5,643)	3,500·820 (8,644)	4,616·190 (11,398)	14,547·600 (35,920)
	1959-60	179,760·465 (443,853)	8,875·170 (21,914)	2,104·785 (5,197)	3,517·830 (8,686)	4,878·225 (12,045)	15,898·680 (39,256)
	1960-61	179,760·465 (443,853)	8,875·170 (21.914)	2,104·785 (5,197)	3,523·500 (8,700)	5,207·085 (12,857)	15,859·800 (39,160)
Morshi	1958-59	161,537·895 (398,859)	9,692·055 (23,931)	2,418·660 (5,972)	5,951·475 (14,695)	2,556·360 (6,312)	9,908·730 (24,466)
	1959-60	161,537·895 (398,859)	9,692·055 (23,931)	2,418·660 (5,972)	5,951·475 (14,695)	2,556·360 (6,312)	9,908·730 (24,466)
	1960-61	161,537·895 (398,859)	9,692·055 (23,931)	2,418·660 (5,972)	5,951·475 (14,695)	2,556·360 (6,312)	9,908·730 (24,466)

Daryapur	1958-59	131,275·485 (324,137)	1,218·645 (3,009)	1,589·220 (3,924)	3,407·265 (8,413)	1,074·060 (2,652)	2,811·510 (6,942)
	1959-60	131,275·485 (324,137)	1,204·065 (2,973)	1,587·600 (3,920)	3,639·330 (8,986)	1,351·485 (3,337)	2,822·040 (6,968)
	1960-61	131,275·485 (324,137)	1,112·535 (2,747)	1,586·790 (3,918)	3,639·330 (8,986)	1,103·220 (2,724)	2,547·045 (6,289)
Achalpur	1958-59	12,707·840 (315,328)	5,048·325 (12,465)	2,293·110 (5,662)	4,287·735 (10,587)	1,818·855 (4,491)	5,656·230 (13,966)
	1959-60	12,707·840 (315,328)	5,048·325 (12,465)	2,293·110 (5,662)	4,287·735 (10,587)	1,818·855 (4,491)	4,966·920 (12,264)
	1960-61	12,707·840 (315,328)	5,048·325 (12,465)	2,293·110 (5,662)	4,287·735 (10,587)	1,818·855 (4,491)	4,966·920 (12,264)
Melghat	1958-59	399,475·395 (986,359)	312,434·010 (771,442)	4,309·200 (10,640)	3,605·310 (8,902)	4,795·200 (11,840)	12,428·640 (30,688)
	1959-60	399,475·395 (986,359)	312,434·010 (771,442)	4,185·270 (10,334)	4,039·875 (9,975)	10,595·610 (26,162)	10,246·905 (25,301)
	1960-61	399,475·395 (986,359)	312,434·010 (771,442)	4,185·270 (10,334)	4,039·875 (9,975)	10,607·760 (26,192)	10,246·905 (25,301)
District Total		1,220,615·730 (3,013,866)	351,315·225 (867,445)	16,457·580 (40,636)	26,725·950 (65,990)	19,248·840 (47,528)	56,386·935 (139,227)
		1,220,615·730 (3,013,866)	350,089·695 (864,419)	16,151·400 (39,880)	27,409·590 (67,678)	25,588·710 (63,182)	54,877·500 (135,500)
		1,220,615·730 (3,013,866)	350,119·665 (864,493)	16,150·590 (39,878)	27,415·260 (62,692)	25,231·905 (62,301)	54,567·625 (134,725)

Note.—Figures in brackets are in acres.

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TABLE No. 5—*cont.*

Taluka (1)	Year (2)	Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in area sown (9)	Current fallows (10)	Other fallows (11)	Net area sown (12)	Area sown more than once (13)	Total cropped area (14)
Amravati	1958-59	1,600·155 (3,951)	1,567·755 (3,871)	6,535·485 (16,137)	173,361·465 (428,053)	1,093·500 (2,700)	174,454·965 (430,753)
	1959-60	1,600·155 (3,951)	2,214·945 (5,469)	7,047·000 (17,400)	172,202·760 (425,192)	1,204·875 (2,975)	173,407·635 (428,167)
	1960-61	1,600·155 (3,951)	648·810 (1,602)	3,568·455 (8,811)	177,696·990 (438,758)	1,191·915 (2,943)	178.888·905 (441,701)
Chandur	1958-59	1,524·420 (3,764)	2,044·440 (5,048)	7,858·620 (19,404)	133,296·840 (329,128)	492·885 (1,217)	133,789·725 (330,345)
	1959-60	1.064·340 (2,628)	2,308·095 (5,699)	7,842·420 (19,364)	13,370·920 (329,064)	734·670 (1,814)	134,005·590 (330,878)
	1960-61	950·130 (2,346)	1,411·425 (3,485)	7,274·610 (17,962)	134,553·960 (332,232)	739·125 (1,825)	135,293·085 (334,057)
Morshi	1958-59	2,100·735 (5,187)	1.180·575 (2,915)	10,404·045 (25,689)	117,325·260 (289,692)	261·630 (646)	117,586·890 (290,338)
	1959-60	2,343·735 (5,787)	1,995·840 (4,928)	10,477·755 (25,871)	116,193·285 (286,897)	793·395 (1, 959)	116,581·680 (288,856)
	1960-61	2,343·735 (5,787)	1.996·245 (4,929)	10.477·755 (25,871)	116,193·285 (286,897)	388·395 (959)	116,581·680 (287,856)

Daryapur..	1958-59	324·405 (801)	320·355 (791)	2,486·295 (6,139)	118,043·730 (291,466)	236·520 (584)	118,280·250 (292,056)
	1959-60	531·360 (1,312)	539·460 (1,332)	2,835·000 (7,000)	116,765·145 (288,309)	468·585 (1,157)	116,423·730 (289,466)
	1960-61	531·360 (1,312)	483·975 (1,195)	2,847·960 (7,032)	117,425·700 (289,940)	329·670 (814)	117,755·370 (290,754)
Achalpur..	1958-59	1,034·370 (2,554)	633·420 (1,564)	4,578·525 (11,305)	102,357·270 (252,734)	723·330 (1,786)	103,080·600 (254,520)
	1959-60	1,035·180 (2,556)	631·395 (1,559)	4,578·525 (11,305)	103,047·795 (254,439)	729·000 (1,800)	103,776·795 (256,239)
	1960-61	1,035·180 (2,556)	631·395 (1,559)	3,226·230 (7,966)	104,400·090 (257,778)	682·020 (1,684)	105,082·110 (259,462)
Melghat ..	1958-59	5,272·290 (13,018)	5,046·300 (12,460)	21,297·330 (52,586)	30,287·115 (74,783)	847·260 (2,092)	31,134·375 (76,875)
	1959-60	5,399·865 (13,333)	2,039·175 (5,035)	20,273·085 (50,057)	30,260·385 (74,717)	1,111·320 (2,744)	31,371·705 (77,461)
	1960-61	5,399·865 (13,333)	2,039·175 (5,035)	17,357·085 (42,857)	33,165·450 (81,890)	1,146·555 (2,831)	34,314·435 (84,721)
District Total ..		11,856·375 (29,275)	10,792·845 (26,649)	53,160·300 (131,260)	674,671·680 (1,665,856)	3,655·125 (9,025)	678,326·805 (1,674,881)
		11,974·635 (29,567)	9,728·910 (24,022)	53,053·785 (130,997)	671,740·290 (1,658,618)	5,041·845 (12,449)	676,782·135 (1,671,067)
		11,860·425 (29,285)	7,211·025 (17,805)	44,752·095 (110,499)	683,435·475 (1,687,495)	4,477·680 (11,056)	687,913·155 (1,698,551)

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The percentage of cultivated area to the total area in the district was 56.6 but it varied from taluka to taluka, the highest being 89.8 in Daryapur taluka and the lowest being 8.8 in Melghat taluka.

Forest Area.

The forests in the district are broadly divided into two groups, viz., (1) Forests of Melghat and (2) Forests in the Plains. The forests of Melghat occupy the Gawilgad ranges of Satpuda hills which form the catchment area of important rivers, such as, the Tapi and the Wardha. The terrain is hilly and needs to be under systematic forest management for the conservation of soil and moisture. These forests are teak bearing with a high potential and capable of yielding big size timber. Hence they assume considerable importance and constitute an asset from the point of view of timber production. At present they are scientifically managed under an approved Working Plan. Forests in the plains meet the immediate requirements of agricultural population such as fuel, small-size timber, grass and grazing facilities all of which are continuously in demand. These forests are also under a sanctioned Working Plan. Some plots are maintained by State in Melghat forest for the purpose of carrying on research. Table No. 6 indicates the distribution of the forest area under the two departments in 1960-61.

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Forest Area.

TABLE No. 6

DISTRIBUTION OF FOREST AREA (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1960-61

(In hectares)

Range	Talukas (Whole or part) included in the range	Forest in charge of Forest Department				Forest in charge of Revenue Department		Total	
		Reserved			Protected	Reserved	Protected	Reserved [Col. (5)+(7)]	Protected [Col. (6)+(8)]
		A Class	C Class	Total					
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Semadoh ..	Melghat (Part) ..	26,316·495 (64,979)	..	26,316·495 (64,979)	..	Nil	11,725·155 (28,951) in Melghat taluka.	26,316·495 (64,979)	(For whole Melghat taluka). 11,725·155 (28,951)
Raipur ..	Do. .	28,599·885 (70,617)	..	28,599·885 (70,617)	..	..		28,599·885 (70,617)	
Khandu ..	Do. ..	39,010·410 (96,322)	..	39,010·410 (96,322)	..	..	..	39,010·410 (96,322)	
Chaurakund	Do. ..	27,967·275 (69,055)	..	27,967·275 (69,055)	..	..	..	27,967·275 (69,055)	
Dharni ..	Do. ..	15,712·785 (38,797)	..	15,712·785 (38,797)	2,627·235 (6,487)	..	..	15,712·785 (38,797)	2,627·235 (6,487)
Gugamal ..	Do. ..	42,218·415 (104,243)	..	42,218·415 (104,243)	..	..	..	42,218·415 (104,243)	
Dhulghat ..	Do. ..	56,981·880 (140,696)	..	56,981·880 (140,696)	2,713·905 (6,701)	..	..	56,981·880 (140,696)	2,713·905 (6,701)

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TABLE No. 6—*cont.*

DISTRIBUTION OF FOREST AREA (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1960-61

(In hectares)

Range	Talukas (Whole or part) included in the Range	Forest in charge of Forest Department: Reserved: A Class	Forest in charge of Forest Department: Reserved: C Class	Forest in charge of Forest Department: Reserved: Total	Forest in charge of Forest Department: Protected	Forest in charge of Revenue Department: Reserved	Forest in charge of Revenue Department: Protected	Total: Reserved [Col. (5)+(7)]	Total: Protected [Col. (6)+(8)]
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Khirpani ..	Part of Daryapur taluka.	41,301·090 (101,978)	959·040 (2,368)	42,260·130 (104,346)	2,824·875 (6,975)			42,260·130 (104,346)	2,824·875 (6,975)
Chikhaldara	Melghat (Part) and whole of Achalpur and Daryapur Talukas.	28,766·346 (71,028) 3,027·780 (7,476) 201·690 (498)	5,124·465 (12,053)	37,120·275 (91,655)	196.425 (485)			37,120.275 (91,665)	196·425 (485)
Amravati ..	Amravati (Whole) ..	6,136·560 (15,152)	5,650·155 (13,951)	25,961·715 (64,103)	..	..	..	25,961·715 (64,103)	
	Chandur (Whole)	7,559·325 (18,665)	6,615·675 (16,335)			..	..		
Morshi ..	Morshi (Whole) ..	11,001·015 (27,163)	9,573·795 (23,639)	20,574·810 (50,802)	..	..	..	20,574·810 (50,802)	•
Amravati District		334,800·945 (826,669)	27,923·130 (68.946)	362,724·075 (895,615)	8,362·440 (20,648)	Nil	11,725·155 (28,951)	362.724·075 (895,615)	20,087·595 (49,599)

Note.—Figures in brackets are in acres.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. LAND UTILISATION. Forests Produce.

The principal forest produce comprised timber, bamboos, firewood, fodder grass and minerals. The minor forest produce included harra, gum, fruits, tendu leaves and russa grass. The aggregate value of total forest produce in 1960-61 amounted to Rs. 40,76,302. Table No. 7 gives details regarding the output and value of forest produce in Amravati district in 1960-61.

TABLE No. 7

OUTPUT AND VALUE OF FOREST PRODUCE IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1960-61

Forest Produce (1)	Quantity (2)	Value (3)
		Rs.
Timber in C.ft.	611,845 (17,131·660 Cu. metres)	36.71,070
Fire wood in C.ft.	88,843 (2,487·604 Cu. metres)	1,11,116
Bamboos Nos.	28.82,851	1,77,342
Fodder grass in Tons	1,413 (1,435·608 Metric tons)	57,316
Minerals in C.ft.	..	45,061
Miscellaneous in Tons	..	369
Harra in Mds.	80 (29·86 Quintals)	160
Gum in Mds.	31 (11·57 Quintals)	1,250
Fruits in Mds.	4,193 (1,564·99 Quintals)	4,193
Tendu leaves in Mds.	2,400 (895·78 Quintals)	1,200
Russa grass in Mds.	7,225 (2,696·66 Quintals)	7,225

Cropped Area.

The gross cropped area of the district in 1960-61 was 687792.870 hectares (16.98,254 acres), of which the area cropped more than once was 4477.680 hectares (11,056 acres), the net cropped area being 683315.190 hectares (16,87,198 acres). Table Nos. 8 and 9 show the taluka-wise distribution of *kharif* and *rabi* food and non-food crops in 1960-61 and taluka-wise area under different crops in 1960-61, respectively.

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LAND UTILISATION.

Cropped Area.

TABLE No. 8

DISTRIBUTION OF CROPPED AREA (TALUKAWISE), IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1960-61

(In hectares)

Taluka	Gross Cropped area						Grand Total (Gross cropped area)	Area cropped more than once	Net cropped area
	Kharif		Rabi		Total				
	Food Crops	Non-food Crops	Food Crops	Non-food Crops	Food Crops [Cols. (2)+(4)]	Non-food Crops (Cols. (3)+(5)]			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Amravati	66,119·490 (163,258)	91,945·935 (227,027)	18,412·920 (45,464)	2,410·560 (5,952)	84,532·410 (208,722)	94,356·495 (232,979)	178,888·905 (441,701)	1,191·915 (2,943)	177,696·990 (438,758)
Chandur	56,336·715 (139,103)	74,215·035 (183,247)	4,140·720 (10,224)	600·615 (1,483)	60,477·435 (149,327)	74,815·650 (184,730)	135,293·085 (334,057)	739·125 (1,825)	134,553·960 (332,232)
Morshi	49,377·600 (121,920)	62,697·645 (154,809)	4,308·390 (10,638)	198·045 (489)	53,685·990 (132,558)	62,895·690 (155,298)	116,581·680 (287,856)	388·395 (959)	116,193·285 (286,897)
Daryapur	33,067·035 (81,647)	64,095·300 (158,260)	16,779·960 (41,432)	3,691·575 (9,115)	49,846·995 (123,079)	67,786·875 (167,375)	117,633·870 (290,454)	329·670 (814)	117,304·200 (289,640)
Achalpur	37,797·030 (93,326)	62,582·220 (154,524)	4,465·125 (11,025)	237·735 (587)	42,262·155 (104,351)	62,819·955 (155,111)	105,082·110 (259,462)	682·020 (1,684)	104,400·090 (257,778)
Melghat	19,973·790 (49,318)	6,960·735 (17,187)	7,180·245 (17,729)	198.450 (490)	27,154·035 (67,047)	7,159·185 (17,677)	34,313·220 (84.724)	1,146·555 (2,831)	33,166·665 (81,893)
Total ..	262,671·660 (648,572)	362,496·870 (895,054)	55,287·360 (136,512)	7,336·980 (18,116)	317,959·020 (785,084)	369,833·850 (913,170)	687,792·870 (1698,254)	4,477·680 (11,056)	683,315·190 (1,687,198)

Note—Figures in brackets are in acres.

It is evident from Table No. 8 that the area under non-food crops exceeded that under food-crops by 51874.830 hectares (1,28,086 acres) in 1960-61. Foodgrains were produced mainly in Amravati, Chandur, Morshi and Daryapur talukas. The main food-crops of the district are *kharif* jowar and wheat among cereals; *tur*, gram and *mung* among pulses, chillis among condiments and spices and fruits and vegetables. The main non-food crops primarily included cotton among fibres; groundnut and sesamum among edible oil-seeds and linseed among non-edible oil-seeds. Table No. 9 shows that the area under cereals was nearly four times that under pulses, whereas the area under fibres exceeded that under cereals by about 20250 hectares (50,000 acres).

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Cropped Area.

TABLE No. 9

ACREAGE UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS (TALUKAWISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1960-61.

(In hectares)

Crops	Amravati	Chandur	Morshi	Daryapur	Achalpur	Melghat	District Total (2) to (7) [cols.]
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Cereals	67,966·695 (167,819)	46,551·915 (114,943)	40,494·330 (99,986)	39,533·265 (97,613)	29,497·365 (72,833)	20,246·760 (49,992)	244,290·330 (603,186)
Pulses	14,362·110 (35,462)	12,316·455 (30,411)	9,936·675 (24,535)	8,800·650 (21,730)	9,992·970 (24,674)	6,345·540 (15,668)	61,754·400 (152,480)
Sugarcane	18·630 (46)	9·720 (24)	10·125 (25)	13·770 (34)	12·555 (31)	1·215 (3)	66·015 (163)
Vegetables	293·625 (725)	179·415 (443)	197·640 (488)	144·180 (356)	244·215 (603)	10·530 (26)	1,069·605 (2,641)
Fibres	8,651·205 (21,361)	66,785·310 (164,902)	59,150·250 (146,050)	62,958·870 (155,454)	61,141·635 (150,967)	5,729·130 (14,146)	264,416·400 (652,880)
Oil-seeds	9,059·850 (22,370)	7,972·830 (19,686)	3,707·370 (9,154)	4,665·600 (11,520)	1,737·855 (4,291)	1,430·055 (3,531)	28,573·560 (70,552)
Condiments and Spices ..	1,423·980 (3,516)	1,136·025 (2,805)	811·215 (2,003)	1,300·455 (3,211)	2,087·370 (5,154)	543·105 (1,341)	7,302·150 (18,030)
Total ..	101,776·095 (251,299)	134,951·670 (333,214)	114,307·605 (282,241)	117,416·790 (289,918)	104,713·965 (258,553)	34,306·335 (84,707)	607,472·460 (1,499,932)

Note.—Figures in brackets are in acres.

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HOLDINGS.

The study of the size of agricultural holdings is very important in the context of productivity of agriculture and well-being of the agricultural population. With the increase in population over the past few decades the pressure of population on available land has also increased. Consequently the size of holdings is getting smaller and smaller due to sub-division and fragmentation of the existing holdings. The customary laws of inheritance and succession are also partly responsible for the small size of holdings.

The agricultural holdings in the district are divided into three classes A, B, C. Class A comprises persons who cultivate land by themselves with or without the aid of hired labour; class B consists of those who do not cultivate land by themselves but supervise and direct cultivation by farm servants; while class C comprises persons who receive rent from the land but do not participate directly or indirectly in cultivation. Broadly speaking, persons in the first two classes can be styled cultivators, while those in the last class can be described non-cultivating owners. The following quinquennial statements (tables No. 10 and No. 11) of holdings in Amravati district in 1962-63, give an idea of the distribution of *Khalsa* lands among the holders in relation to various magnitude groups.

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TABLE No. 10

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS (TALUKA-WISE) IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

[In hectares]

Taluka	Magnitude groups	Class 'A'		Class 'B'		Class 'C'		Total	
		Number of persons	Khalsa land	Number of persons	Khalsa land	Number of persons	Khalsa land	Number of persons	Khasla land
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Amravati ..	1. Up to 2·023 hectares (5 acres).	13,793	15,361·77,150 (37,930·30)	215	239·39,550 (591·10)	468	659·47,365 (1,628·33)	14,476	16,260·64,065 (40,149·73)
	2. 2·023 to 6·070 hectares (5 to 15 acres.)	14,048	48,949·94,025 (1,20,864·05)	192	670·72,455 (1,656·11)	561	2,231·59,050 (5,510·10)	14,801	51,852·25,530 (1,28,030·26)
	3. 6·070 to 10·117 hectares (15 to 25 acres.)	4,254	24,690·44,430 (60,964·06)	328	2,109·28,860 (5,208·12)	624	3,299·16,240 (8,146·08)	5,206	30,098·89,530 (74,318·26)
	4. 10·117 to 40·47 hectares (25 to 100 acres.)	782	11,559·93,525 (28,543·05)	2,507	37,059·60,600 (91,505·20)	859	13,263·02,910 (32,748·22)	4,148	61,882·57,035 (152,796·47)
	5. 40·47 to 202·33 hectares (100 to 500 acres.)	..	..	165	10,540·18,170 (26,025·14)	..	..	165	10,540·18,170 (26,025·14)

	6. Over 202·33 hectares (500 acres).	..	.	2	943·65,000 (2,330·00)	..	.	2	943·65,000 (2,330·00)
Chandur ..	1. (As above)	13,522	20,452·500 (50,500)	..	..	75	128·385 (317)	13,597	20,580·885 (50,817·00)
	2. (As above)	12,181	42,107·040 (1,03,968)	..	.	87	426·060 (1,052)	12,268	42,533·100 (1,05,020·00)
	3. (As above)	3 635	29,866·725 (73,745)	7	62·370 (154·00)	125	1,027·485 (2,537)	3,767	30,956·580 (76,436·00)
	4. (As above)	252	9,153·810 (22.602)	1,613	51,715·260 (1,27,692·00)	312	14,860·260 (36,692)	2.177	75,729·330 (186,986·00)
	5. (As above)	..	..	32	1,424·385 (3,517·00)	69	4,200·255 (10,371)	101	5,624·640 (13,888·00)
	6. (As above)	..	..	..	.	..	..	..	..

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TABLE No. 10—*cont.*

Taluka	Magnitude groups	Class 'A'		Class 'B'		Class 'C'		Total	
		No. of persons	Khalsa land	No. of persons	Khalsa land	No. of persons	Khalsa land	No. of persons	Khalsa land
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Morshi ..	1. (As above)	14,450	15,457·68,360 (38,167·12)	141	279·85,500 (691·00)	5,297	5,836·96,125 (14,412·25)	19,888	21,574·49,985 (53,270·37)
	2. (As above)	5,732	20,699·60670 (51,110·14)	1,670	9,468·95,265 (23,380·13)	2,125	7,745·62,500 (19,125·00)	9,527	37,914·18,435 (93,615·27)
	3. (As above)	939	8,729·90,055 (21,555·31)	736	5,713·77,645 (14,108·09)	516	4,166·64,000 (10,288·00)	2,191	18,610·31,706 (45,951·40)
	4. (As above)	220	2,632·50.000 (6,500·00)	1,320	30,907·70,865 (76,315·33)	519	6,874·87,500 (16,975·00)	2,059	40,415·08,365 (99,790·33)
	5. (As above)	..	10,223.095 (25,242·21)	187	10,223·09,505 (25,242·21)	..	..	187	10,223·09.505 (25,242·21)
	6. (As above) .. .	.	..	5	1,468·16,145 (3,625·09)	..	..	5	1,468·16,145 (3,625·09)
Daryapur ..	1. (As above)	13,142	16,181·37.000 (39,954·00)	2,342	2,790·04,500 (6,889·00)	2,294	3,152·11,500 (7,783·00)	17,778	22,123·53,000 (54,626·00)
	2. (As above)	7,272	19,168·65,000 (47,330·00)	2,451	7,653·28,500 (18,897·00)	1,649	4,442·04,000 (10,968·00)	11,372	31,263·97,500. (77,195·00)
	3. (As above)	1,780	12,955·54,500 (31,989·00)	975	6,573·55,500 (16.231·00)	608	4,670·05,500 (11,531·00)	3,363	24,199·15,500 (59,751·00)
	4. (As above)	1,001	13,999·63,500 (34,567·00)	1,316	17.784·36,000 (43.912·00)	502	6,888·24,000 (17,008·00)	2,819	38,672·23,500 (95,487·00)

	5. (As above)	42	2,481·84,000 (6,128·00)	85	4,777·78,500 (11,797·00)	26	1,520·77,500 (3,755·00)	153	8,780·40,000 (21,680·00)
	6. (As Above)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Achalpur ..	1. (As above) . .	8,427	12,436·74,000 (30,708·00)	6,096	9,065·52,000 (22,384·00)	3,646	3,852·36,000 (9,512·00)	18,169	25,354·62,000 (62,604·00)
	2. (As above)	594	19,339·56,000 (47,752·00)	3,627	10,536·48,000 (26,016·00)	2,655	7,568·64,000 (18,688·00)	6,876	37,444·68,000 (92,456·00)
	3. (As above) . ..	635	5,178·73,500 (12,787·00)	497	4,027·72,500 (9,945·00)	1,586	10,773·81,000 (26,602·00)	2,718	19,980·27,000 (49,334·00)
	4. (As above)	894	6,472·71,000 (15,982·00)	1,187	8,240·13,000 (20,346·00)	1,533	8,732·20,500 (21,561·00)	3,614	23,445·04,500 (57,889·00)
	5. (As above)	9	4,56·43,500 (1,127·00)	19	985 77,000 (2,434·00)	7	487,62,000 (1,204·00)	35	1,929·82,500 (4,765·00)
	6. (As above)	..	..	2	497·74,500 (1,229·00)	..	..	2	497·74,500 (1,229·00)
Melghat ..	1. (As above)	1,017	1,105·33,005 (2,729·21)	..	..	56	340·15,950 (839·90)	1,073	1,445·48,955 (3,569·11)
	2. (As above)	2,249	7,801·84,710 (19,263·82)	..	..	456	2,641·04,145 (6,521·09)	2,705	10,442·88,855 (25,784·91)
	3. (As above)	874	6,512·90,625 (15,081·25)	..	..	260	2,158·88,895 (5,330·59)	1,134	8,671·79,520 (21,411·84)
	4. (As above) .. .	667	11,131·99,605 (27,486·41)	..	..	254	3,378·53,835 (8,342·07)	921	14,510·53,440 (35,828·48)
	5. (As above)	15	1,249·31,970 (3,084·74)	..	..	14	1,161·75,060 (2,868·52)	29	2,411·07,030 (5,953·26)
	6. (As above)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

*The figures in brackets are in acres.

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TABLE No. 11

QUINQUENNIAL STATEMENT OF HOLDINGS IN GOVERNMENT RAYATWARI AREA IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1962-63

(In hectares)

Magnitude groups	Class A		Class B		Class C		Total	
	No. of persons	Khalsa land	No. of persons	Khalsa land	No. of persons	Khalsa land	No. of persons	Khalsa land
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
(1) Up to 2·023 hectares (5 acres).	64,351	80,995·395 (1,99,988·33)	8,794	12,374 815 (30,555·10)	11,836	13,969·454 (34,492·48)	84,981	1,07,339·665 (2,65,036·21)
(2) Over 2·023 (5) and upto 6·070 hectares.. (15 acres).	42,076	1,58,066·643 (39,028·01)	7,940	28,32,944·220 (69,949 24)	7,533	25,054·997 (61,864·19)	62,147	2,11,451·083 (5,22,101·44)
(3) Over 6·070 (15) and upto 10·117 hectares (25 acres).	12,117	87,934·255 (2,17,121·62)	2,543	18,48,671 505 (45,646 21)	3,719	26,096·041 (6,443·67)	18,379	1,32,517·013 (3,27,202·50)
(4) Over 10·117 (25) and upto 40·47 hectares (100 acres).	3,816	54,950·586 (1,35,680·46)	7,943	1,45,707 065 (3,59,770·53)	3,979	53,997·147 (1,33,326·29)	15,738	2,54,654·798 (6,28,777·28)
(5) Over 40·47 (100) and upto 202·33 hectares (500 acres).	66	14,410·689 (3,55,811·95)	488	27,951·217 (69,015·35)	116	5,849·626 (14,443·52)	667	34,284·874 (84,654·01).
(6) Over 202·33 hectares (500 acres).	..	..	9	2,909·556 (7,184·09)	..	..	9	2,909·556 (7,184·09)

Figures in brackets are in acres.

Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings.

Sub-division and fragmentation of holdings are one of the principal reasons for uneconomic and less productive agriculture. The heavy pressure of growing population on agriculture coupled with the customary laws of inheritance has resulted in sub-dividing agricultural plots into smaller holdings. The problem is further aggravated because these fragments are not only small but are scattered all over. Consequently the cost of agricultural operations has increased. The farmer has to take his bullocks and implements from one fragment to another which involves waste of time and labour. Close supervision also becomes very difficult. Some land is wasted in marking boundaries and bunds. The uneconomic holdings make it difficult to carry out any permanent improvements on the land. The farmer cannot spend on digging wells and providing draining facilities. This affects the productivity of agriculture. It was therefore deemed necessary to prevent sub-division of small holdings and to consolidate the fragmented plots of land. The then Government of Bombay enacted the Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act of 1947, which was made applicable to Amravati district recently.

The Act provides for determination of local standard areas and treatment of fragments, procedure for consolidation and actual consolidation. It also aims at prevention of further fragmentation. A fragment is defined as a plot which is smaller than the standard area determined under the Act. A standard area in respect of any class of land means the area which the Government determines, from time to time, as the minimum area necessary for remunerative cultivation in any area.

The standard area is determined after holding the requisite enquiries about the quality and productivity of land, and after consulting the District Advisory Committee set up for the purpose. The Government takes into account the objections received within three months of the publication of the provisionally settled minimum areas and then the standard area for each class of land in a local area is determined. The Act prescribes that the fragments must be noted in the Record of Rights and village records, and notices must be served to all persons concerned. After the issue of such notices, the transfer of fragments is prohibited unless the transfer proposes to merge such a fragment in a contiguous survey number or in a recognised sub-division thereof. The holder of the fragment or his heirs can cultivate and inherit it, but in case of sale or lease, it can be sold or leased to the contiguous holder only. No plot of land can be transferred or partitioned so as to create a fragment. Such transfer or partition contrary to the provisions of the Act is deemed void and the owner of such a land is liable to pay the prescribed fine. If the contiguous holder is unwilling to purchase the fragment or purposely makes a low bid, the Government can purchase it after giving compensation payable under the provision of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894.

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Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings.

The Act also provides for the consolidation of holdings into compact blocks. The process, however, involves some problems, such as, field inspection, valuation of all scattered holdings and their re-distribution in such a manner as to accord a fair deal to the parties concerned. Re-distribution of land is done within the existing proprietary rights. It is also implied that everybody should get land of the same value and of equal productivity in the process of exchange. For this purpose, lands of equal fertility and outturn are chosen for an exchange. There is a provision of payment of compensation in case this is not feasible. The farmer to whom the holding is allotted is granted the same rights like lease, mortgage, etc., as the previous owner. It is laid down that the interests of tenants are to be safeguarded and that no person shall be rendered landless.

Table No. 11 reveals that the largest number of landholders, *viz*., 84,981, possess less than five acres of land; whereas the highest acreage of land, *viz*., 6,28,777.28, is possessed by persons holding between 25 to 100 acres of land.

Though reliable data about the average size of holdings are not available, it may be noted here that the problem of small holdings is not very acute in Amravati district. The average size of holdings is much larger than what it is in some other parts of the State.

CO-OPERATIVE FARMING.

Factors like increasing pressure of population on land, inequitable distribution of land, uneconomic size of holding, evil of acute fragmentation and sub-division of land, low productivity of the soil, traditional methods of cultivation, illiteracy of the farmers, meagre financial resources of the cultivators, etc., prove to be stumbling blocks in the implementation of plans for a progressive agricultural economy. Against this background, the 64th Session of the Indian National Congress held at Nagpur in 1958 pledged its overwhelming support to the adoption of 'Co-operative Farming'. Co-operative Farming implies pooling together of small plots of land and their joint management. When the cultivator becomes a member of the co-operative society, he can meet his credit requirements from financial assistance extended by it. Besides, he is enabled to purchase and use modern machinery, to effect efficient division of labour, to provide irrigation, to undertake measures for the permanent development of land and finally to sell his produce advantageously, all of which would be beyond the capacity of an individual farmer to achieve.

In 1961 there were only six societies functioning in the district. Of these, four were collective co-operative farming societies whereas the remaining two were joint farming societies. The following is the list of these societies:—

(1) Kharpi Collective Co-operative Farming Society, Limited, taluka Achalpur.

(2) Wadgaon Collective Co-operative Farming Society, Limited, taluka Achalpur.

(3) Ambada Collective Co-operative Farming Society, Limited, taluka Morshi.

(4) Sheoti Jahagir Collective Co-operative Farming Society, Limited, taluka Amravati.

(5) Daryapur Joint Co-operative Farming Society, Limited, taluka Daryapur.

(6) Bhiokundi Joint Co-operative Farming Society, Limited, taluka Morshi.

Collective Co-operative Farming Societies.

These can be formed when it is possible to acquire large areas of land on lease either from the landlords or from the Government. If the society owns land on free-hold or lease-hold, if the land is cultivated jointly by all the members, if the produce is raised and sold collectively and if the proceeds are distributed among the members in proportion to their wages (which may include remuneration for personal labour rendered with or without their farm equipment) the society is said to be collective co-operative farming society. It is important to note that the members of a collective co-operative farming society necessarily belong to the class of landless labourers who do not enjoy any ownership or proprietary rights in land. Thus the membership of this type of society ensures its members of employment and means of subsistence.

Joint Co-operative Farming Societies.

This type of society envisages pooling together of land belonging to small owners whose individual holdings do not allow economic and efficient cultivation of land. Members work on the pooled land in accordance with the directions of an Elected Committee and the Manager appointed by it. They work jointly on the farm and receive wages for their labour. The ownership of each member in his holding is recognised by payment of a dividend or rent in proportion to the value of land. The produce is stockpiled as well as disposed of collectively. The proceeds are applied for (a) meeting all expenses of cultivation including payment for the use of land, wages and cost of management; (b) defraying other charges such as interest on borrowings, depreciation of assets, previous losses, etc., and (c) making provision for reserves and other funds, if any. The residue is then shared by the members in proportion to the wages earned by each after utilising a part thereof towards the payment of bonus to the salaried staff.

There was no lift irrigation society registered in the district till December 1961. Efforts aimed at forming lift irrigation societies did not meet with success on account of the relatively poor response of promoters of the proposed societies and non-availability of funds in the Third Five-Year Plan. The position of the collective co-operative farming societies and joint co-operative farming societies in the district till 31-3-1961 is summarised in the following table.

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TABLE No. 12

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1961.

Particulars	Collective Co-operative Farming Societies	Joint Co-operative Farming Societies
Number of Societies	4	2
Number of members..	56	24
Total land in possession of the Societies	183·060 (452 acres)	158·355 (391 acres)
Land under cultivation	117·450 (290 acres)	42·525 (105 acres)
Share Capital—	Rs.	Rs.
(*a*) From members	2,325	2,575
(*b*) From Government	5,300	6,000
Reserve Fund..	60	24
Borrowings—		
(*a*) From Central Farming Agencies	2,000	..
(*b*) From Government	6,400	..
(*c*) Subsidy	1,600	..

These societies are given financial assistance by the Government in various forms so as to strengthen their financial structure and to help them to implement their schemes vigorously and effectively The following table reveals the financial assistance made available to four societies between 1959-60 and 1960-61

TABLE No. 13

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES

Particulars	Wadgaon Collective Co-operative Farming Society		Kharpi Collective Co-operative Farming Society		Daryapur Joint Farming Society		Bhiokundi Joint Farming Society
	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61	1959-60	1960-61	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Share Capital	3,300	..	2,000	..	4,000	.	2,000
Land Development Loan.	..	4,800	..	1,600	..	..	..
Subsidies—							
(*i*) Land development.	..	1,200	..	400	..	..	..
(*ii*) Seeds and manures.	500	500	500	386	..	720	..
(*iii*) Managerial cost.	..	900	1,200	..	..	..	313
Total assistance	3,800	7,400	3,700	2,386	4,000	720	2,313

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Out of the six societies functioning in this district, four collective co-operative farming societies were allotted Government land measuring 183.465 hectares (453 acres). The members of the two joint farming societies could pool 158.355 hectares (391 acres) of land. Thus, out of 341.820 hectares (844 acres) of total land, nearly 159.975 hectares (395 acres) were brought under cultivation during 1960-61. Bhiokundi Joint Co-operative Farming Society could not bring its 116.640 hectares (288 acres) of land under cultivation due to lack of adequate funds. The Central Financing Agency could not accommodate the society on account of the latter's heavy encumbrances. During 1959-60, the first year of cultivation, two collective farming societies incurred losses resulting from heavy expenses on agricultural operations. During the same year, one joint co-operative farming society earned a profit of Rs. 6,642.

The foregoing two tables reveal that the formation and development of co-operative societies was in the initial stages. Out of the six societies, two ceased to function in 1960-61. Wadgaon Collective Co-operative Farming Society received the highest financial assistance amounting to Rs. 7,400 from the Government in the form of land development loan (Rs. 4,800) and subsidies (Rs. 2,600). It will be thus observed that the societies were few in number. Besides, not all of them showed satisfactory results. Collective co-operative farming societies are receiving better response from the landless labourers who get employment on the collective farm. The Central Co-operative Banks have also agreed to finance these societies. It is expected that the movement will avail itself of every sort of assistance extended and gain ground in the years to come

CEREALS.

Table No. 14 shows taluka-wise acreage under cereals in Amravati district in 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61.

TABLE No. 14

AREA UNDER CEREALS (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61.

(In hectares)

Taluka	Rice			Wheat			Jowar		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Amravati ..	353·970 (874)	551·205 (1,361)	791·775 (1,955)	13,013·865 (32,133)	16,148·970 (39,874)	15,183·450 (37,490)	48,301·110 (1,19,262)	44,157·150 (1,09,030)	49,851·450 (1,23,090)
Chandur ..	445·500 (1,100)	564·570 (1,394)	799·875 (1,975)	2,359·125 (5,825)	3,184·110 (7,862)	3,168·720 (7,824)	38,905·110 (96,062)	38,025·450 (93,890)	40,822·381 (1,00,796)
Morshi	95·175 (235)	107·325 (265)	156·735 (387)	2,527·200 (6,240)	3,154·140 (7,788)	3,002·670 (7,414)	35,602·335 (87,907)	36,224·415 (89,443)	36,049·860 (89,012)
Daryapur ..	10,935 (27)	7·695 (19)	13,770 (34)	12,273·930 (30,306)	13,942·125 ([illegible])	14,281·515 (35,263)	27,010·260 (66,692)	23,721·255 (58,571)	25,046·415 (61,843)
Achalpur ..	26·730 (66)	58·320 (144)	123·930 (306)	3,340·845 (8,249)	3,358·260 (8,292)	4,003·425 (9,885)	23,937·525 (59,105)	23,586·390 (58,238)	24,976·755 (61,671)
Melghat	4,723·515 (11,663)	4,797·630 (11,846)	5,305·500 (13,100)	1,193·940 (2,948)	2,047·275 (5,055)	2,571·345 (6,349)	8,060·310 (19,902)	7,541·505 (18,621)	8,354·745 (20,629)
District Total ..	5,655·825 (13,965)	6,086·745 (15,029)	7,191·585 (17,757)	34,708·905 (85,701)	41,834·880 (103,296)	42,211·125 (1,04,225)	1,81,816·650 (4,48,930)	1,73,256·165 (4,27,793)	1,85,101·605 (4,57,041)

Taluka	Bajri			Total Cereals*		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
Amravati	1,916·865 (4,733)	1,837·080 (4,536)	2,117·340 (5,228)	63,840·960 (1,57,632)	62,709·795 (154,639)	67,966·695 (167,819)
Chandur	1,664·955 (4,111)	1,644·705 (4,061)	1,737·045 (4,289)	43,418·430 (1,07,206)	43,438·275 (107,255)	46,551·915 (114,943)
Morshi	1,321·920 (3,264)	1,230·390 (3,038)	1,274·940 (3,148)	39,554·730 (97,666)	40,731·660 (100,572)	40,494·330 (99,986)
Daryapur	166·455 (411)	185·895 (459)	189·135 (467)	39,465·225 (97,445)	37,861·425 (93,485)	39,533·265 (97,613)
Achalpur	392·850 (970)	392·040 (968)	388·395 (959)	27,719·820 (68,444)	27,409·590 (67,678)	29,497·365 (72,833)
Melghat	71 685 (177)	74·520 (184)	70·065 (173)	17,398·395 (42,959)	17,610·210 (43,482)	20,246·760 (49,992)
District Total ..	5,534·730 (13,666)	5,364·630 (13,246)	5,776·920 (14,264)	2,31,397·560 (5,71,352)	2,29,760 955 (567,311)	2, 44,290·330 (6 03,186)

Note.—Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

*Also includes the acreage under maize, ragi, kodra, little millets, common millets, vari, sava, bhadli and such other minor cereals.

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CEREALS.

The net area sown in Amravati district amounted to 683192.475 hectares (16,86,895 acres) in 1960-61. Of this, cereals accounted for 244290.330 hectares (6,03,186 acres) or 36 per cent. The important cereals cultivated in the district comprise jowar, wheat, rice and bajra. Other cereal crops, such as, waragu, maize, ragi, barley, etc., are grown on a very small scale.

Jowar.

Jowar (*jvari*), Indian millet, is the most widely grown crop in the district. It forms the staple food of the cultivators while the fodder known as *kadbi* serves as the best cattle fodder. It covered an area of 185101.605 hectares (4,57,041 acres) in 1960-61. Jowar is grown in all the six talukas of the district. However, Amravati and Chandur talukas together account for nearly 50 per cent 90673.830 hectares (2,23,886 acres) of the area under jowar. Melghat being the forest area, jowar occupied only 8354.745 hectares (20,629 acres) of land. Jowar is grown practically on all the soils in the district. It is mostly grown in the *kharif* season. The seed is sown in the month of July and the crop is harvested in the months of December and January. Generally, it is grown after cotton and derives benefit from manures applied to the previous crop. Hence, very often it does not require special manuring. If found necessary, five to ten cart loads of farm-yard manure is applied. Seed is drilled by means of *tiffan*. About six to eight lbs. of seed is required per acre.

The improved variety of jowar, *viz*., Saoner is cultivated in the district. Ganeri, a local variety, is also in vogue. The Agricultural Department is introducing many improved selections like N.J. 156, V.J. 136, and Ramkel in the district.

Wheat

Wheat (*gahu*) is the second important cereal crop in the district which covered an area of 42211.125 hectares (1,04,225 acres) in 1960-61. Wheat is chiefly grown in Amravati and Daryapur talukas which together accounted for 29464.963 hectares (72,753 acres) or nearly 70 per cent of the total acreage under wheat. It was grown on a smaller scale in Achalpur, Chandur, Morshi and Melghat talukas. Wheat is produced as a cold weather crop and is sown when the October rains are completely over. It is generally grown on heavy and medium soils as an irrigated as well as an unirrigated crop. When wheat is to be produced land is generally kept fallow during *kharif* season and is prepared by a number of ploughings. It is also grown as a second crop immediately after groundnut. Wheat is drilled with a *kathani*, *tiffan* or a *duse*. About 10.120 kgs. to 21.180 kgs. (40 to 60 lbs.) of seed is required for sowing an acre of land. Three to four irrigations are given to the crop. Occasionally, safflower is sown along the borders of the wheat crop, just to protect the main crop. Wheat generally requires three or four months to ripen and is harvested in the months of February or March.

Since, the introduction of the "scheme for distribution and multiplication of sann seed for green manuring purposes", many cultivators have taken to green manuring. The acreage under

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Wheat.

irrigated wheat crop amounted to 505.845 (1,249 acres) in 1960-61 as against 41705.280 hectares (1,02,976 acres) under non-irrigated crop. Irrigation is mainly available from wells.

The chief varieties grown in the district are *vijay*, *bansi* and *bansipalli*. The Department of Agriculture has introduced Hy 65 wheat variety under the scheme for "Pilot Wheat Seed Scheme". Hy 65 wheat variety is a rust resistant variety which yields higher when grown under irrigation. The yield of unirrigated crop is low. *Vijay* variety fetches a better price than Hy 65 variety.

Rice.

Paddy (*Dhan*) as a cereal crop comes next to the wheat crop. It occupied an area of 7191.585 hectares (17,757 acres) of land in the district in 1960-61. Melghat was the only taluka growing paddy on substantial scale and accounted for 5305.500 hectares (13,100 acres) or about 74 per cent of the total acreage under paddy in 1960-61. Acreage under paddy in Amravati and Chandur talukas in the same year was about 2000 each, while that in Achalpur, Morshi and Daryapur talukas was negligible. Rice requires about 50" to 60" of rainfall. Only Melghat taluka received the required rainfall during the year. The climatic conditions and rainfall of that taluka are suitable for rice cultivation.

The paddy is drilled in the fields in July just like other crops and generally the low-lying lands are put under rice cultivation. This crop is solely a rainfed crop and no water from the pond or well is given.

Generally, coarse and early maturing varieties of paddy are grown in the district. The Agricultural Department has introduced improved varieties like Nasik 27, Nasik 22 in the district These are early varieties which can be drilled. Paddy is harvested in the month of October with the result that second crop of gram or any other crop can be taken on the same land.

Bajri.

Bajri, spiked millet, occupied an area of 5776.920 hectares (14,264 acres) in the district in 1960-61. Amravati, Chandur and Morshi are the main bajri growing talukas which together accounted for 5129.325 hectares (12 665 acres) or 89 per cent of total acreage under bajri. Next to jowar and wheat, bajri is the staple food of the poor. Bajri straw is also used as fodder.

Generally, it is grown on lighter soils and requires less water and plenty of sunshine. It is sown in July along with jowar and is harvested in the month of November-December.

PULSES.

A number of pulses are grown in Amravati district, the chief among them being *tur*, *mug*, gram and *udid*. The minor ones such as *math*, *chavali*, horse-gram, *lakh* and *watana* are also grown. The pulses covered an area of 61754.400 hectares (1,52,480 acres) during 1960-61. Table No. 15 gives acreage under pulses in Amravati district in 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61.

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TABLE No. 15

AREA UNDER PULSES (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61

(In hectares)

Taluka	GRAM			MUG			TUR		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1956-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Amravati	1,358·370 (3,354)	2,054·970 (5,074)	1,520·370 (3,754)	2,917·620 (7.204)	2,614·275 (6,455)	3,016·845 (7,449)	9,700·975 (23,953)	9,315·000 (23,000)	8,915·670 (22,014)
Chandur	716·040 (1,768)	1,194·750 (2,950)	965·925 (2,385)	2,626·830 (6,486)	2,584·710 (6,382)	2,798·550 (6,910)	8,086·635 (19,967)	8,198·010 (20,242)	7,627·770 (18,834)
Morshi	329·256 (813)	618·435 (1,527)	260·415 (643)	1,914·030 (4,726)	1,910·385 (4,717)	2,004·345 (4,949)	7,248·690 (17,898)	7,163·235 (17,687)	7,049·835 (17,407)
Daryapur	1,815·615 (4,483)	2,120·580 (5,236)	1,945·215 (4,803)	1,244·565 (3,073)	1,161·135 (2,867)	1,157·895 (2,859)	4,451·760 (10,992)	4,553·820 (11,244)	4,370·760 (10,792)
Achalpur	413·100 (1,020)	507·870 (1,254)	438·615 (1,083)	1,076·895 (2,659)	967·950 (2,390)	1,120·635 (2,767)	7,097·220 (17,524)	7,483·995 (18,479)	7,088·715 (17,503)
Melghat	2,645·865 (6,533)	2,973·915 (7,343)	2,376·945 (5,869)	252·720 (624)	221·130 (546)	200·070 (494)	977·265 (2,413)	935·145 (2,309)	1,009·665 (2,493)
District Total ..	7,278·255 (17,971)	9,470·520 (23,384)	7,507·485 (18,537)	10,032·660 (24,772)	9,459·585 (23,357)	10,298·340 (25,428)	37,562·535 (92,747)	37,649·205 (92,961)	36,062·415 (89,043)

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Taluka	L DID			TOTAL PULSES*		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
Amravati	288·360 (712)	344·655 (851)	328·860 (812)	14,800·320 (36,544)	15,112·575 (37,315)	14,362·110 (35,462)
Chandur	97 605 (241)	95·175 (235)	132·840 (328)	12,394·215 (30,603)	12,884·670 (31,814)	12,316·455 (30,411)
Morshi	193·185 (477	164·430 (406)	191·565 (473)	10,208·430 (25,206)	10,289·835 (25,407)	9,936·675 (24,535)
Daryapur	370·575 (915)	379·080 (936)	404 190 (998)	8,712·360 (21,512)	9,088·605 (22,441)	8,800·650 (21,730)
Achalpur	1,107 675 (2,735)	969·165 (2,393)	974·430 (2,406)	10,031·040 (24,768)	10,163·070 (25,094)	9,992·970 (24,674)
Melghat	669·465 (1,653)	992·655 (2,451)	1,359·585 (3,357)	5,550·120 (13,704)	6,432·615 (15,883)	6,345·540 (15,668)
District Total ..	2,726·865 (6,733)	2,945·160 (7,272)	3,391·470 (8,374)	61,696·485 (1,52,337)	63,971·370 (1,57,954)	61,754 400 (1,52,480)

[1] Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

*Note.—Also includes the acreage under horse gram, masur, math, val, chavali, watana, lakh and such other minor pulses.

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Tur.

Tur is grown all over the district. It covered an area of 36062.415 hectares (89,043 acres) in 1960-61. Its cultivation was prominent in Amravati taluka which claimed 8915.670 hectares (22,014 acres) or nearly 25 per cent of the total acreage under the crop. Chandur 7627.770 hectares (18,834 acres) and Achalpur 7088.715 hectares (17,503 acres) talukas ranked next in order. *Tur* cultivation in Melghat taluka 1009.665 hectares (2,493 acres) was negligible. *Tur* is always grown mixed with other crops as a line crop. Rows of *tur* can be seen in cropped cotton and groundnut crops. Thus the types of soil on which the crop is raised varies with the requirements of the crops with which it is mixed. But generally it is grown on all types of soil, from heavy to light soils. It is sown in June-July and harvested in January-February.

The Department of Agriculture had introduced improved varieties like the Hyderabad and E.B. 38 in the district, which were becoming popular amongst the cultivators.

Mug.

Mug (green gram) covered an area of 10298.340 hectares (25.428 acres) of land in Amravati district in 1960-61. The acreage under *mug* in Amravati and Chandur talukas together amounted to 5815.395 hectares (14.359 acres) or 56 per cent of the total area under *mug*. It was also grown in the rest of the talukas. It is produced as a *kharif* crop and is sown in July. It is seldom taken as a single crop and is always mixed with jowar. Recently, as a result of the recommendations of the Agriculture Department, a variety known as Kopergaon *mug* was taken as a sole crop. This was an early maturing variety and required only 60 days to mature. It served as a good green manure crop. After the *mug* crop is taken in *kharif* season a second crop of wheat is taken on the same land.

Gram.

Gram (*harbara*) covered an area of 7507.485 hectares (18,537 acres) in 1960-61 and was grown throughout the district. Melghat taluka was in the forefront in its cultivation 2376.945 hectares (5,869 acres) followed by Daryapur 1945.215 hectares (4.803 acres) and Amravati talukas 1520.370 hectares (3,754 acres). It is always produced as a *rabi* crop and is grown on heavy and medium soils. No irrigation is generally given to the crop. It is sown in October and harvested in the month of January. The Agriculture Department had introduced improved strain of gram No. 28' in the district.

Minor Pulses.

Besides these, there were quite a number of minor pulses grown in the district such as *math* (*matki*), *udid* (black gram), *kulith* (horse gram), *chavali*, *watana*, *val*, *lakh*, etc. Of these, *udid*, *math*, *kulith* and *chavali* are grown in *kharif* season. These are sown in June-July and harvested in October-November. *Lakh*, *watana* and at times *chavali* are grown in *rabi* season. These are sown in October and reaped in December. *Lakh* is grown only in Daryapur taluka which occupied an area of 670.680 hectares (1,656 acres) in 1960-61. *Watana*, though produced throughout the district, claimed only 228 acres of

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Minor pulses.

land during the same year. All these minor pulses together accounted for 7967.160 hectares (19,672 acres)—pulse-wise acreage: *Udid* 3391.470 hectares (8,374 acres); *Math* 2002.320 hectares (4,944 acres); *Masur* 1265.625 hectares (3,125 acres); *Lakh* 670.680 hectares (1.656 acres); *Chavali* 253.530 hectares (626 acres); other pulses 242.190 (598 acres); *Vatana* 92.340 hectares (228 acres); *Val* 39.295 hectares (97 acres) and *Kulith* 9.720 hectares (24 acres) of land in Amravati district in 1960-61 The cultivation of *math* was prominent in Chandur and Amravati talukas which together accounted for 1,178.955 hectares (2,911 acres) or 59 per cent of the total area under *math*. *Udid* which occupied 3391.470 hectares (8,374 acres) was mainly cultivated in Melghat 1359.585 hectares (3,357 acres) and Achalpur 974.430 hectares (2,406 acres) talukas which together accounted for 2334.015 hectares (5,763 acres) or 68.8 per cent of the total acreage under *udid*.

OUTTURN OF PRINCIPAL CROPS.

Table No. 16 gives the total outturn of principal crops in each taluka of the district in 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

The drugs and narcotics grown in Amravati district comprise tobacco (*tambakhu*) and betel-leaf (*nagvel pan*). They together occupied an area of 338.985 hectares (837 acres) in 1958-59, 337.365 hectares (833 acres) in 1959-60 and 331-695 hectares (819 acres) in 1960-61. Table No. 17 gives the taluka-wise area under drugs and narcotics. in Amravati district in 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61.

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OUTTURN OF PRINCIPAL CROPS.

TABLE No. 16

TOTAL OUTTURN OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN EACH TALUKA OF AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61.

(Figures in Metric tons except otherwise specified)*

Taluka	FOOD CROPS							
	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Gram	Mug	Tur	Total food grains
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Amravati								
1958-59	137·160 (135)	6,245·352 (6,147)	26,181·304 (25,769)	871·728 (858)	609·600 (600)	516·128 (508)	2,827·528 (2,783)	37,388·800 (36,800)
1959-60	202·184 (199)	6,800·088 (6,693)	15,196·312 (14,957)	653·288 (643)	400·304 (394)	503·936 (496)	2,155·952 (2,122)	25,912·064 (25,504)
1960-61	286·512 (282)	6,494·272 (6,392)	29,310·584 (28,849)	300·736 (296)	491·744 (484)	546·608 (538)	2,998·216 (2,951)	40,428·672 (39,792)
Chandur								
1958-59	168·656 (166)	619·760 (610)	20,391·120 (20,070)	628·904 (619)	325·120 (320)	420·624 (414)	2,454·656 (2,416)	25,008·840 (24,615)
1959-60	206·248 (203)	1,249·680 (1,230)	15,246·096 (15,006)	635·000 (625)	1,031·240 (1,015)	536·448 (528)	1,928·368 (1,898)	20,833·080 (20,505)
1960-61	245·872 (242)	1,208·024 (1,189)	22,081·744 (21,734)	741·680 (730)	401·320 (395)	475·488 (468)	2,507·488 (2,468)	27,661·616 (27,226)
Morshi								
1958-59	46·736 (46)	1,049·528 (1,033)	19,736·816 (19,426)	425·704 (419)	183·896 (181)	339·344 (334)	2,272·792 (2,237)	24,054·816 (23,676)
1959-60	42·672 (42)	1,248·664 (1,229)	20,928·584 (20,599)	569·976 (561)	883·920 (870)	393·192 (387)	1,981·200 (1,950)	26,048·208 (25,638)
1960-61	45·720 (45)	1,240·536 (1,221)	20,629·880 (20,305)	624·840 (615)	52·832 (52)	355·600 (350)	1,662·176 (1,636)	24,611·584 (24,224)
Daryapur								
1958-59	3·048 (3)	6,858·000 (6,750)	14,156·944 (13,934)	76·200 (75)	706·120 (695)	195·072 (192)	1,455·928 (1,433)	23,451·312 (23,082)
1959-60	2·032 (2)	3,825·240 (3,765)	10,175·240 (10,015)	65·024 (64)	479·552 (472)	180·848 (178)	918·464 (904)	15,646·400 (15,400)
1960-61	7·112 (7)	4,180·840 (4,115)	15,119·096 (14,881)	72·136 (71)	801·624 (789)	175·786 (173)	1,265·936 (1,246)	21,622·512 (21,282)

*Figures in brackets are in tons.

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Taluka	NON FOOD CROPS						
	Sugarcane	Chillis	Cotton (Bales)	Sann Hemp	Ambadi	Groundnut	Sesamum
(1)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
Amravati							
1958-59	52·832 (52)	960·120 (945)	.. 1,09,520	46·736 (46)	103·632 (102)	3,801·872 (3,742)	157·480 (155)
1959-60	40·640 (40)	1,024·128 (1,008)	.. 77,220	28·448 (28)	81·280 (80)	2,867·152 (2,822)	134·112 (132)
1960-61	43·688 (43)	448·056 (441)	.. 1,14,303	25·400 (25)	72·136 (71)	2,815·336 (2,771)	122·936 (121)
Chandur							
1958-59	32·512 (32)	853·440 (840)	.. 59,213	41·656 (41)	60·960 (60)	3,881·120 (3,820)	84·328 (83)
1959-60	32·512 (32)	1,112·520 (1,095)	.. 63,318	51·816 (51)	61·976 (61)	4,173·728 (4,108)	66·040 (65)
1960-61	22·352 (22)	826·008 (813)	.. 89,953	52·832 (52)	52·832 (52)	3,076·448 (3,028)	69·088 (68)
Morshi							
1958-59	28·448 (28)	1,172·464 (1,154)	.. 73,460	218·440 (215)	74·168 (73)	1,324·864 (1,304)	90·424 (89)
1959-60	30·480 (30)	1,052·576 (1,036)	. 60,423	213·360 (210)	70·104 (69)	1,392·936 (1,371)	91·440 (90)
1960-61	24·384 (24)	574·040 (565)	. 85,758	152·400 (150)	79·248 (78)	1,361·440 (1,340)	90·424 (89)
Daryapur							
1958-59	17·272 (17)	586·232 (577)	.. 95,860	22·352 (22)	49·784 (49)	313·944 (309)	223·520 (220)
1959-60	12·192 (12)	624·840 (615)	.. 56,170	39·624 (39)	40·640 (40)	267·208 (263)	140·208 (138)
1960-61	34·544 (34)	646·176 (636)	. 75,787	29·464 (29)	35·560 (35)	330·200 (325)	121·920 (120)

TABLE No. 16—*contd.*

Taluka	FOOD CROPS							
	Rice	Wheat	Jowar	Bajri	Gram	Mug	Tur	Total Food grains
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Achalpur								
1958-59	10·160 (10)	1,407·160 (1,385)	13,672·312 (13,457)	131·064 (179)	181·864 (179)	180·848 (178)	2,291·080 (2,255)	17,874·448 (17,593)
1959-60	23·368 (23)	1,536·192 (1,512)	14,185·392 (13,962)	148·336 (146)	449·072 (442)	168·656 (166)	2,162·048 (2,128)	18,673·064 (18,379)
1960-61	5·080 (5)	775·208 (763)	14,880·336 (14,646)	181·864 (179)	210·312 (207)	193·040 (190)	2,381·504 (2,344)	18,462·338 (18,334)
Melghat								
1958-59	1,383·792 (1,362)	513·080 (505)	5,037·328 (4,958)	36·575 (36)	979·424 (964)	50·800 (50)	312·928 (308)	8,313·928 (8,183)
1959-60	4,138·162 (4,073)	947·908 (933)	2,892·552 (2,847)	29·464 (29)	113·792 (112)	37·592 (37)	283·464 (279)	8,442·960 (8,310)
1960-61	1,728·216 (1,701)	1,680·464 (1,654)	3,929·888 (3,868)	27·432 (27)	1,017·016 (1,001)	33·528 (33)	302·768 (298)	8,719·312 (8,582)
District Total								
1958-59	1,749·552 (1,722)	16,692·880 (16,430)	99,175·824 (97,614)	2,170·176 (2,136)	2,986·024 (2,939)	1,702·816 (1,676)	11,614·912 (11,432)	136,092·184 (133,949)
1959-60	4,614·672 (4,542)	15,607·792 (15,362)	78,624·176 (77,386)	2,101·088 (2,068)	3,357·880 (3,305)	1,800·352 (1,792)	9,429·496 (9,281)	115,555·776 (113,736)
1960-61	2,318·512 (2,282)	15,579·344 (15,334)	105,951·528 (104,283)	1,948·688 (1,918)	2,974·848 (2,928)	1,780·032 (1,752)	11,118·088 (10,943)	141,671·040 (139,440)

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Taluka (1)	Sugarcane (10)	Chillis (11)	Cotton (Bales) (12)	Sann Hemp (13)	Ambadi (14)	Groundnut (15)	Sesamum (16)
	NON FOOD CROPS						
Achalpur							
1958-59	48·768 (48)	1,738·376 (1,711)	.. 81,280	188·976 (186)	45·720 (45)	287·528 (283)	112·776 (111)
1959-60	51·816 (51)	1,789·176 (1,761)	.. 65,704	119·888 (118)	33·528 (33)	465·328 (458)	104·648 (103)
1960-61	32·512 (32)	784·352 (772)	.. 81,513	98·552 (97)	34·544 (34)	489·712 (482)	105·664 (104)
Melghat							
1958-59	2·032 (2)	347·472 (342)	.. 8,183	17·272 (17)	9·144 (9)	136·144 (134)	216·408 (213)
1959-60	3·048 (3)	330·200 (325)	.. 5,884	14·224 (14)	12·192 (12)	111·760 (110)	152·400 (150)
1960-61	3·048 (3)	1·016 (1)	.. 7,629	7·112 (7)	4·064 (4)	69·080 (68)	142·240 (140)
District Total							
1958-59	181·864 (179)	5,658·104 (5,569)	.. 427,516	535·432 (527)	343·408 (338)	9,745·472 (9,592)	884·936 (871)
1959-60	170·688 (168)	5,933·440 (5,840)	.. 328,719	467·360 (460)	299·720 (295)	9,278·112 (9,132)	688·848 (678)
1960-61	160·528 (158)	3,279·648 (3,228)	.. 454,943	365·760 (360)	278·384 (274)	8,142·224 (8,104)	552·272 (642)

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DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

TABLE No. 17

AREA UNDER DRUGS AND NARCOTICS (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60, 1960-61

(Area in hectares)

Taluka	Tobacco			Betel-leaves			Total Drugs and Narcotics		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Amravati	23·490 (58)	27·540 (68)	32 400 (80)	34·020 (84)	34 020 (84)	32·400 (80)	57 510 (142)	61 560 (152)	64·800 (160)
Chandur .. .	4 050 (10)	3 240 (8)	2 430 (6)	14 985 (37)	14·985 (37)	14 985 (37)	19 035 (47)	18 225 (45)	17·415 (43)
Morshi	3·240 (8)	2·835 (7)	2·025 (5)	29·160 (72)	29 565 (73)	30 780 (76)	32·400 (80)	32·400 (80)	32·805 (81)
Daryapur	15·390 (38)	19·035 (47)	15·390 (38)	107 730 (266)	100 440 (248)	101·250 (250)	123·120 (304)	119·475 (295)	116·640 (288)
Achalpur	23·895 (59)	30·780 (76)	23 085 (57)	83·025 (205)	74·925 (185)	76·950 (190)	106 920 (264)	105·705 (261)	100·035 (247)
Melghat	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
District Total ..	70·065 (173)	83·430 (206)	75 330 (186)	268 920 (664)	253·935 (627)	256·365 (633)	338·985 (837)	337·365 (833)	331·695 (819)

Figures in brackets indicate acres.

DRUGS AND NARCOTICS.

Tobacco.

Tobacco (*tambakhu*) occupied an area of 70.065 hectares (173 acres) in 1958-59, 83.430 hectares (206 acres) in 1959-60 and 75.330 hectares (186 acres) in 1960-61. Amravati tahsil accounts for 42 per cent of the total. The tobacco crop thrives well on rich alluvial soils. The seed is sown in specially prepared seed beds by end of June and the seedlings are transplanted in August or September. The transplantation is done only when the seedlings have four leaves and are about four inches in height. They have to be protected carefully from the caterpillars. The crop requires liberal manuring. Harvesting is done in February and March, as the leaves are ripe by that time After harvesting, the leaves are dried in the sun for about a week, to be ready for marketing. Tobacco is usually purchased by the wholesale merchants of tobacco in the district.

Betel-leaf.

Betel-leaf (*vidyachi pane*), is one of the chief garden crops in this district. It occupied an area of 256.365 hectares (633 acres) in 1960-61, of which an area of 101.250 hectares (250 acres) was in Daryapur tahsil and 76.950 hectares (190 acres) in Achalpur tahsil. The *Bangala* and *Kapuri* varieties of betel-leaf are grown in the district. The places famous for betel-leaf cultivation are Anjangaon Bari, Badnera, Malkhed and Nerpingalai.

The crop requires abundant supply of water. In order to support the betel-vines, numerous trees and plants such as *shevri, pangara, hadga* and *shevga* are planted. The vines are planted in October with cuttings obtained from the best shoots of the older plants. The leaves are ripe for picking after two years. The vines continue to bear for twenty to thirty years, if they are properly maintained. The cultivation of betel-vines is very costly and hence requires adequate financial strength. The vines must be protected from the hot winds in the summer.

Besides medicinal uses, betel-leaves are chewed with betel-nut, lime, catechu and sometimes with tobacco and aromatics like cloves, cardamom and nutmeg.

SUGARCANE.

Sugarcane (*Oos*) is a minor garden crop in the district and covers only a small area of 72.495 hectares (179 acres). Except for a few hectares which are under the *Ponda* variety of sugarcane, the most popular variety is the Co419.

The sugarcane crop thrives well on the fertile and well drained type of soil having a depth of 0.60 m to 0.76 m (24 to 30 inches). The soil is required to be ploughed deeply and brought into fine tilth by repeated harrowings. Cuttings from ripe sugarcane stumps are planted with proper spacing. Planting is done usually in January or February. Harvesting starts from October and lasts up to March.

Sugarcane is invariably grown as an irrigated crop. Intensive efforts, are of *prima facie* importance. Heavy doses of green manures as well as chemical fertilisers are essential.

The major pests of this crop are the stem-borer and the top-shoot-borer. These are to be controlled by spraying 0.25 per

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cent D.D.T. or 5 per cent benzene hexachloride. *Pyrilla* and grass-hopper are controlled by benzene hexachloride and red-rot and smut by avoiding ratooning and destroying the affected canes.

OIL-SEEDS.

A variety of oil-seeds is grown in the district. The acreage under oil-seeds in 1960-61 was 28573.560 hectares (70,552 acres). Groundnut, safflower and sesamum were important among edible oil-seeds whereas linseed and niger-seed were important among non-edible oil-seeds. Out of the net area sown *viz.*, 683192.475 hectares (16,86,895 acres) in 1960-61, oil-seeds accounted for only 4.2 per cent. This reveals that oil-seeds were cultivated on a relatively small scale. Table No. 18 indicates acreage under oil-seeds in Amravati district in 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61.

TABLE No. 16

AREA UNDER OIL-SEEDS (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61.

(Area in hectares[1])

Taluka	Groundnut			Sesamum		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Amravati	8,908·380 (21,996)	6,808·455 (16,811)	6,446·790 (15,918)	686·070 (1,694)	662·585 (1,637)	557·280 (1,376)
Chandur	10,283·355 (25,391)	8,656·065 (21,373)	7,042·545 (17,389)	373·410 (922)	327·645 (809)	310·635 (767)
Morshi	2,548·665 (6,293)	3,232·710 (7,982)	2,973·105 (7,341)	396·090 (978)	399·330 (986)	378·675 (935)
Daryapur	584·010 (1,442)	555·660 (1,372)	692·145 (1,709)	942·435 (2,327)	690·120 (1,704)	607·500 (1,500)
Achalpur	611·145 (1,509)	847·665 (2,093)	1,049·355 (2,591)	485·595 (1,199)	459·270 (1,134)	420·390 (1,038)
Melghat	222·345 (549)	191·160 (472)	157·140 (388)	854·550 (2,110)	749·655 (1,851)	705·915 (1,743)
District Total .	23,157·900 (57,180)	20,291·715 (50,103)	18,361·080 (45,336)	3,738·150 (9,230)	3,289·005 (8,121)	2,980·395 (7,359)

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TABLE No. 18—*cont.*

(Area in hectares[1])

Taluka	Linseed			Total oil-seeds*		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Amravati	1643 085 (4,057)	2,419 875 (5,975)	1,996·245 (4,929)	11,270·745 (27,829)	10,024·560 (24,752)	9,059 850 (22,370)
Chandur	496 935 (1,227)	654·480 (1,616)	600·615 (1,483)	11,167·875 (27,575)	9,683·145 (23,909)	7,972·830 (19,686)
Morshi	192·780 (476)	274 185 (677)	287·145 (709)	3,209 625 (7,925)	3,962·925 (9,785)	3,707·370 (9,154)
Daryapur	2,476·980 (6,116)	3,291·030 (8,126)	3,284 145 (8,109)	4,021 650 (9,930)	4,584 600 (11,320)	4,665 600 (11,520)
Achalpur	153·900 (380)	189 135 (467)	237·735 (587)	1,290·735 (3,187)	1,514·295 (3,739)	1,737 855 (4,291)
Melghat	14·580 (36)	20 655 (51)	31·995 (79)	1,645·920 (4,064)	1,517·940 (3,748)	1,430 055 (3,531)
District Total ..	4,978 260 (12,292)	6,849 360 (16,912)	6,437·880 (15,896)	32,606 550 (80,510)	31,287 465 (77,253)	28,573·560 (70,552)

[1] Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

*Note.—Also includes the acreage under Coconut, Rape, Mustard, Safflower, Castor, Niger seed and such other minor oil-seeds.

OIL-SEEDS.

Groundnut.

Groundnut (*bhuimug*) is the most important oil-seed crop of the district and covered an area of 18352.980 hectares (45,316 acres) in 1960-61. It was grown in almost all the talukas of the district but Chandur and Amravati were the main areas producing groundnut. These two talukas together accounted for 13489.335 hectares (33,307 acres) or as much as 73.5 per cent of the total acreage under the crop. Morshi taluka ranked next in order with 2973.105 hectares (7,341 acres) or 16.2 per cent of the total acreage.

Groundnut is produced as a *kharif* crop and is grown on medium and lighter types of soils. It is sown in July and harvested in October-November. When grown on medium type of soils a second crop of wheat is produced wherever irrigation facilities are available. Groundnut crop is usually rotated with cotton and jowar. Generally, cotton is grown after groundnut crop. Cow-dung manure is generally applied to the crop. Groundnut seed is either dibbled or drilled with *argada* and *sarata*. Nearly 80 lbs. of kernels are required for sowing an acre of land. The total outturn of groundnut crop in the district was 8144.256 metric tons (8.016 tons) in 1960-61.

The Department of Agriculture has introduced, in the district, a scheme for multiplication and distribution of groundnut variety Ak. 12-24. About 17415 hectares (43,000 acres) of land had been covered by this variety and it was expected that within the next few years the entire area under groundnut would be covered by it. There were other varieties of groundnut grown in the district like *Dhobali, Lal Japan, Tija* (Ak-10). etc. Average yield per acre varied from 600 lbs. to 800 lbs. *Tija* is a staple variety. Groundnut kernel is used in a variety of ways. Its oil is used for cooking. The cake is used as a manure. It serves as an excellent manure for oranges and bananas. It is also a good nutritious food for cattle.

Sesamum.

Sesamum (*til*) covered an area of 2980.395 hectares (7,359 acres) of land in the district in 1960-61. Melghat, Daryapur and Amravati had an area of 705.915 hectares (1,743 acres); 607.500 hectares (1,500 acres) and 557.280 hectares (1,376 acres), respectively. under this crop. It is grown both as a *kharif* as well as a *rabi* crop. When produced in *kharif*, it is sown in June-July and harvested in October. Local non-descript varieties are grown in the district. Its oil is used for cooking and the cake as cattle-feed. The total outturn of the sesamum crop for the district was 644.7 tons in 1960-61.

Safflower.

Safflower (*karadi*) was cultivated on a small area of 57.510 hectares (142 acres). Amravati taluka alone accounted for 62 per cent or 35.640 hectares (88 acres). It is grown in *rabi* season and is never sown as a single crop. It is generally sown as a hedge to wheat crop. It serves as a fence because cattle finds it hard to trespass the thorny leaves of safflower. It is sown in October-November and harvested in February-March.

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OIL-SEEDS.

Linseed.

Linseed (*Javas*) covered an area of 6437.880 hectares (15,896 acres) in 1960-61. Daryapur taluka alone accounted for 3284.145 hectares (8,109 acres) or little more than 50 per cent. It was followed by Amravati taluka which claimed 1996.245 hectares (4,929 acres) or 31 per cent of the total area under linseed. It is grown only in *rabi* season as a single crop. The seed is generally sown early in October and is harvested in January. Many a cultivator used linseed oil for cooking. Linseed cake is a good manure as also the best food for milch cattle. The total outturn of the crop amounted to 1639.9 tons in 1960-61.

Other Oil-seeds.

Besides the oil-seeds described so far, other oil-seeds such as mustard, castor seed and niger seed are also grown in the district. Castor (*erandi*) seed covered as area of 126.765 hectares (313 acres) of which 59.535 hectares (147 acres) were found in Morshi taluka. It is generally grown as a mixed crop with chillis and other vegetables for the purpose of providing shade. Mustard (*Mohari*) covered 19.845 hectares (49 acres) of which 14.985 hectares (37 acres) were accounted for by Daryapur taluka. Niger seed occupied an area of 590.895 hectares (1,459 acres). The cultivation of niger seed was concentrated in Melghat taluka which accounted for almost the entire acreage under the crop in the district.

CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

Condiments and spices are important cash crops of the district. The principal among them are chillis, ginger, turmeric, coriander, garlic and fenugreek; they together occupied an area of 6345.540 hectares (15,668 acres) in 1958-59, 6646.455 hectares (16,411 acres) in 1959-60 and 7302.150 hectares (18,030 acres) in 1960-61. Chillis however accounted for about 90 per cent of the area under condiments and spices.

Table No. 19 gives the area under condiments and spices in the district.

TABLE No. 19

AREA UNDER CONDIMENTS AND SPICES (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61

(Area in hectares[1])

Taluka	Chillis			*Total Condiments and Spices		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Amravati	1,144·935 (2,827)	12,591 855 (31,091)	1,406·565 (3,473)	1,150 200 (2,840)	1,271 700 (3,140)	1,464 480 (3,516)
Chandur	696·600 (1,720)	1,033 560 (2,552)	1,120 230 (2,766)	728·190 (1,798)	1,052 595 (2,599)	1,136·025 (2,805)
Morshi	792·595 (1,957)	751 680 (1,856)	657·315 (1,623)	933 930 (2,306)	911·655 (2,251)	811·215 (2,003)
Daryapur	770·310 (1,902)	855·360 (2,112)	1,283·040 (3,168)	781·295 (1,929)	865 080 (2,136)	1,300·455 (3,211)
Achalpur	2,227 095 (5,499)	2,348 805 (5,059)	2,375 220 (5,124)	2,243·295 (5,539)	2,057 805 (5,081)	2,087·370 (5,154)
Melghat	489 645 (1,209)	466 155 (1,151)	513·540 (1,268)	508 680 (1,256)	487 620 (1,204)	543·105 (1,341)
District Total ..	6,121·170 (15,114)	6,407·505 (15,821)	7,055 910 (17,422)	6,345 540 (15,668)	6,646·455 (16,411)	7,302·150 (18,030)

*Also includes the acreage under ginger, turmeric, coriander, garlic, fenugreek and other condiments and spices.

[1]The figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

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CONDIMENTS AND SPICES.

Chillis.

Chillis (*mirchi*), occupied 6121.170 hectares (15,114 acres) in 1958-59, 6407.505 hectares (15,821 acres) in 1959-60 and 7055.910 hectares (17,422 acres) in 1960-61. Though chillis are grown all over the district, a large acreage, *viz.*, 2075.220 hectares (5,124 acres) in 1960-61, is found in Achalpur taluka.

It is grown as an irrigated as well as a rainfed crop. The seedlings are grown on well prepared and raised seed beds in June and are transplanted in the field after about one and a half months. Interculturing is done regularly.

Chillis thrive well on deep black as well as medium black soil. Heavy doses of manure, *viz.*, 15 to 20 cart-loads of green manure is given for an acre.

Green chillis are ready for plucking from September onwards. Red chillis are plucked and dried in sun in the months of December and January.

Lawangi and *Dhobari* are the varieties grown in the district.

Turmeric.

Turmeric (*halad*) covers an area of about 121.500 hectares (300 acres). Morshi taluka accounts for most of the area under turmeric. The crop can be taken in medium type of soils. Intensive ploughing, pulverising and manuring are of prime importance for turmeric. It is an irrigated crop. The rhizomes are planted in early June and harvested in January-February.

Other Spices and Condiments.

The other spices and condiments cultivated in this district are coriander (*dhane*), garlic (*lasun*) and *methi*. They together cover an area of about 91.125 hectares (225 acres) in the district, and are cultivated in Melghat, Morshi, Chandur, Daryapur and Amravati tahsils. Coriander (*Kothimbir*) is grown practically throughout the year. Garlic is planted in October and harvested in December-January.

All the condiments and spices find a ready market in the district itself. There is no exportable surplus of these crops.

FIBRES.

Fibres occupied an area of 340758.900 hectares (8,41,380 acres) in Amravati district. A little over 99 per cent of this was accounted for by cotton. The district is famous for production of cotton which has a very wide market. Other fibres grown include sann-hemp (Bombay hemp) and *ambadi* (Deccan hemp).

Cotton

Kapas (Cotton) covered an area of 338339.835 hectares (8,35,407 acres) in 1960-61 The acreage under the crop in 1950-51 was 225180 hectares (5,56,000 acres). Thus during the decade between 1950-51 and 1960-61, area under cotton increased by 113159.835 hectares (2,79,407 acres), or 50.3 per cent. The Cotton Control Act was in operation in Pusha and Jarud revenue inspection circles of Morshi taluka. Since 1955-56. H-420 and Buri 0394 varieties were the improved varieties in the controlled area. The Cotton Control Act is not in operation now. The increase in acreage under cotton can be attributed to the propaganda for the growth of more cotton and the high prices obtained by the cultivators. The improved American

varieties are Buri-0394 and Buri-147 whereas H-420*, Virnar 197/3 and Jarilla are the improved varieties of *deshi* cotton. Besides these, other varieties such as Cambodia, Umra, Co2, Rajpalyan, Verum, Rozia, etc. are also grown. The American varieties require more rainfall than *deshi* varieties and are grown on deep to medium types of soils. The *deshi* varieties are taken in medium soils.

Method of Cultivation.

The usual method of sowing is to drop the seed in the furrows of the drill through a *sarata* or a bamboo tube of the seed drill. Cotton sowing is done in June. American varieties are sown many a time in May. This premonsoon sowing is practised only where irrigation facilities are available. The seed is sown on a *chaufuli* (a square formed by horizontal and vertical rows in the field) and is dibbled by hand and the individual plants are watered. Two or three such waterings are essential for the premonsoon crop. When the seed is drilled, the distance between the rows varies from 18" to 22". Cotton crop requires interculturing four or five times.

As a rule cotton is sown as an entire crop. However, jowar, sesamum and *ambadi* seed are occasionally mixed with cotton seed at the time of sowing. *Tur* is sown after every 10th to 25th line of cotton. Rotations usually followed are cotton, jowar and groundnut. Flowering of *Deshi* and American varieties commences in August and picking starts from October onwards. Buri-0394 variety is later than Buri-147. Picking of *Deshi* varieties is done three or four times and is in progress till December; that of American varieties is done five or six times and continues till February. *Deshi* varieties yield about 150 to 200 lbs. per acre whereas the yield of the American variety is 300 to 350 lbs. per acre.

Diseases.†

The cotton crop requires protection from diseases which affect the quality and yield of cotton and cause severe damage. The affected cotton fetches low price in the market. The most common disease on *Deshi* varieties is downy mildew, locally known as *dahiya*. The American varieties are free from the attack of this disease. When the infestation of *dahiya* is severe, the cotton crop is reduced to the state of brooms. The incidence of this pest was very severe in 1959. The American varieties of cotton are attacked by Aphids, Jassids, the spotted boll worm, the pink boll worm, the red cotton bug, etc.

Improvement.

The Cambodia cotton which is cultivated on a smaller scale is an improved variety. Another variety of American cotton known as Buri, acclimatised in the Vidarbha region is also grown in this district. However, the lint of this variety was found to be weak. Attempts were made, therefore, to get a strain with consistent lint strength. Intensive selection yielded the improved strain Buri 107. But it proved to be a low ginner, and lost its popularity on that account. Another improved

*The distribution of H-420 has been stopped since 1957-58.

†A detailed discussion of diseases of cotton will be found in a separate section 'DISEASES' of this chapter.

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FIBRES.

Cotton.

strain Buri 0394, a re-selection from Buri 107, is developed at the Achalpur Research Station. This has much higher ginning outturn as well as higher yield. Buri 0394 was released for general distribution in 1950-51 by the Department of Agriculture. Further selection from Buri 0394 resulted in an improved sister strain, *viz.*, Buri 147. This is an earlier variety than Buri 0394, has a longer staple length and higher ginning percentage. All these varieties belong to the *Gossipium hirsutum* species.

Among *Deshi* varieties Bani was the common variety grown in Vidarbha region. But on account of its low ginning, poor yield and susceptibility to wilt it was soon replaced by a mixture of coarse types known as Jadi found in Jalgaon and Dhulia region. Efforts were made to get higher yielding strain from Jadi variety which resulted in the isolation of Roseum cotton. This was also found to be highly susceptible to wilt and hence organised research was undertaken to effect improvement. This resulted in the selection of Verum 262, which was released for distribution in 1929. As it was susceptible to variations in climate conditions, further improvement was made, which led to Verum 434 in 1932, and was soon made available for distribution.

Recently, a strain known as Virnar 197-3 has been introduced in the district. This variety has been imported from Jalgaon district and occupies large tracts in all the eight districts of Vidarbha region. This variety has replaced H-420 cotton on account of its higher ginning percentage. Virnar 197-3 was obtained as a result of crossing Jarila X NRS (a high ginner). Being a late variety, it can withstand adverse seasonal conditions. However, now-a-days due to its high susceptibility to downy mildew (*dahiya*), it is losing its popularity. The comparative value of *Deshi* strains is given below:—

Name of the variety	Yield per acre (in kg.)	Ginning percentage	Staple length (millimetres)	Average mill spinning capacity
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Verum 262 .	135·900(300 lbs.)	30	24—26	20—24
2. Verum 434 ..	158·550(350 lbs.)	29	24—26	20—20
3. H. 420	262·740(580 lbs.)	33—34	28	20—24
4. Virnar 197-3 .	226·500(500 lbs.)	38—39	26—28	20—24

Marketing.

Amravati, the district headquarters, is known to be one of the biggest cotton markets in India. Achalpur, Dhamangaon, Warud, Daryapur and Anjangaon are the other cotton markets in the district. The Agriculture Department under its Improved Seed Multiplication Scheme has introduced a system of cotton pool based on the ginning percentage and the purity at the pool

FIBRES.
Cotton.

centres. The 'A' and 'B' class, registered growers are induced to contribute their produce to the pool where it is graded by the expert staff of the department. The cotton thus collected is sold by public auction in the premises of agents appointed by the Agriculture Department for the storage and distribution of cotton seed. The seed is purchased and further distributed to other cultivators.

Minor Fibres.

The minor fibres grown in the district comprise sann-hemp (Bombay Hemp) and *ambadi* (Deccan Hemp) which occupied an area of 1549.125 hectares (3,825 acres) and 1410.615 hectares (3,483 acres), respectively, in 1958-59. In the following year (1959-60) sann-hemp and *ambadi* accounted for 1387.530 and 1402.920 hectares (3,426 and 3,464 acres), respectively. Total area under fibres in 1959-60 was 339957 hectares (8,39,400 acres) whereas acreage under sann-hemp and *ambadi* taken together accounted for 2790.450 hectares (6,890 acres) or less than 0.01 per cent. The fibre from these crops is largely used by the farmers, for their personal domestic requirements. Sann-hemp is mainly used for green manuring.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.
Fruits.

Fruits occupied an area of 2907.900 hectares (7,180 acres) in 1958-59, 3020.490 hectares (7,458 acres) in 1959-60 and 3580.605 hectares (8,841 acres) in 1960-61. The fruit crops grown in this district are orange, sweet orange, sour lime, mango, banana, pomegranate, guava, custard apple, papaya and bullock heart (*ramphal*).

Table No. 20 gives the area under orange, mangoes and total fruit crops in the district.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.
Fruits.

TABLE No. 20

AREA UNDER FRUITS (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61

(Figures in hectares)†

Taluka	Mangoes			Mandarin Orange			Total Fruits*		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Amravati ..	186·300 (460)	181·440 (448)	181·440 (448)	84·240 (208)	116·235 (287)	105·300 (260)	383·535 (947)	418·365 (1,033)	467·370 (1,154)
Chandur ..	46·980 (116)	46·575 (115)	59·130 (146)	93·150 (230)	93·150 (230)	93·150 (230)	212·220 (524)	269·730 (666)	267·705 (661)
Morshi ..	89·910 (222)	73·710 (182)	74·925 (185)	1,287·495 (3,179)	1,234·035 (3,047)	1,639·035 (4,047)	1,739·880 (4,296)	1,790·505 (4,421)	2,236·005 (5.521)
Daryapur ..	110·970 (274)	91·125 (225)	115·830 (286)	10·935 (27)	16·605 (41)	17·415 (43)	164·335 (407)	153·090 (378)	176·175 (435)
Achalpur ..	285·120 (704)	236·115 (583)	240·165 (593)	44·550 (110)	44·550 (110)	51·435 (127)	402·975 (995)	383·130 (946)	427·680 (1,056)
Melghat ..	2·430 (6)	3·645 (9)	3·645 (9)	..	..	..	4·455 (11)	5·670 (14)	5·670 (14)
District Total ..	721·710 (1,782)	632·610 (1,562)	675·136 (1,667)	1,520·370 (3,754)	1,504·575 (3,715)	1,906·335 (4,707)	2,907·900 (7,180)	3,020·490 (7,458)	3,580·605 (8,841)

Note.—*Also includes the acreage under Banana, Sweet Orange, Sour lime, Citrus fruits, Pomegranate, Guava, Custard apple, Papaya, Bullock Heart and other fruits.

†Figures in brackets indicate area in acres.

Orange is by far the most important fruit crop of Amravati district. The Amravati orange, like the Nagpur orange, is valued for its peculiar flavour and taste.

Oranges occupied an area of 1907.145 hectares (4,709 acres) in 1960-61, of which 1639.035 hectares (4,047 acres) were in Morshi tahsil alone.

The medium black soil locally known as *antarpathi*, is most suitable for orange cultivation. Loamy soil with a mixture of lime nodules is also suitable. The seedlings of oranges which are primarily grown in nurseries* are planted during the rains and are liberally manured. Planting is done in straight rows which are spaced at a distance of 1.572 m. (15′) apart each way. Orange is generally grown as a sole crop. But during the first four years after plantation, the cultivators take catch crops like cotton, jowar, banana and vegetables in the space between the rows. The cultivators favour the soil conditions created by the catch crop of banana as conducive to the growth of orange plants.

The plants are irrigated at intervals of 10 to 12 days during the cold weather, and at intervals of 6 days during the season. The frequency of irrigation is a very important factor in the cultivation of oranges. The plants are manured with cowdung before and at the end of the rainy season. The trees require individual manuring in the form of well-rotted farm-yard manure which is given at the rate of 10.120 to 21.650 kg. (40 to 50 pounds) per tree.

The trees begin to bear from the fifth year and are in full bearing from the seventh year. They bear fruits for about 30 years. There are two orange seasons in a year, one between October and December, and the second between February and April. The first is known as *Ambia bahar* and the latter as *Mrug bahar*.† The oranges of the latter season are better in taste and flavour and last longer. Hence, they fetch a better price.

One good tree yields from 500 to 1,000 fruits, at which rate the trees in one acre together yield about 67,000 fruits.

The orange crop is sometimes damaged by violent winds and hail storms. The chief insect pests which infest the crop are caterpillars (*Virchal isocrates*) which bore the fruit, and stem borers (*Chloridolum alcmene*).

*About 4,00,000 seedlings are being raised by the 60 private nurseries in the district.

†They have been so called because the blossoming of orange trees under the *Ambia bahar* corresponds with the blossoming of mango trees and that of the *Mrug bahar* corresponds to the *Mrug Nakshatra* in June.

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FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

Fruits.

Orange.

The following statement gives the item-wise cost of cultivation per acre of orange crop in the district.

Item of expenditure	Amount
FIRST YEAR	Rs.
Ploughing by iron plough	25
Moghada after ploughing	11
Two harrowings	10
Layout of field	5
Plantation, etc.	25
Cost of 10 cart-loads of manure	100
Cost of 118 orange plants	118
Cost of top-dressing in winter	20
Cost of irrigation (32 times)	150
Pruning charges	5
Fencing and protecting	50
Total	519

Mangoes.

Mango (*amba*) is another important fruit crop of this district. The acreage under this crop was 721.710 hectares (1,782 acres) in 1958-59, 632.610 hectares (1,562 acres) in 1959-60 and 675.135 hectares (1,667 acres) in 1960-61. The talukas of Achalpur and Amravati are the biggest producers of mangoes. Besides the mango groves, the trees also flourish on field boundaries.

Most of the mango trees are of non-descript varieties and cannot be compared with alphonso mangoes.

Seedlings raised from mango stones are planted on bunds along the border of the fields in pits of 3 cubic feet each. The pits are filled with good soil and green manure. Two seedlings are planted in a pit, but only one is retained at a later stage. One year old seedlings raised in *Kundis* (earthen pots) are also planted. Mango tree bears fruit after about seven years.

Cloudy weather and gusty winds cause florescence to shed and reduces the yield considerably. Ripe mangoes are relished by all, while raw mangoes (*Kairi*) are used for preparing pickles, *Chutney*, etc.

Banana.

Banana (*kele*) covers an area of 386.370 hectares (954 acres) in this district. The main centres of banana cultivation are Jarud and Warud in Morshi tahsil. This taluka alone accounts for about 191.160 hectares (472 acres) under the crop.

The banana crop requires medium light soil having good drainage. The field is required to be thoroughly ploughed, pulverised and harrowed. It is then manured. Bold seedlings (suckers) are planted in June. They are planted in rows at a distance of about 1.372 m. (four and a half feet) from one another. The rows are first marked with shallow furrows. The crop requires frequent irrigation, *viz.*, twice a week in the dry season.

The *Basarai* variety, also known as Bhusawal green, is mainly planted in this district. The crop is not easily affected by pests or diseases. It however requires very intensive efforts in respect of preparing the soil, manuring, irrigation and cutting the leaves. Top-dressing of oil-cake and ammonium sulphate in the

fourth and the seventh months from planting are necessary. The plants mature after about 12 months. Banana is harvested when the fruits get rounded.

An acre of banana orchard contains about 2,000 plants. Each plant yields one bunch containing six to twelve dozens of bananas.

Guava (*peru*) occupies an area of about 70.065 hectares (173 acres) which is mostly in the Amravati and Achalpur tahsils. It requires black fertile soil. Though guava seeds can be sown by propagation, for quality fruit, grafts of selected trees are planted. Planting is done in pits which are 4.572 m. to 6.096 m. (15′ to 20′) apart from each other. Before planting, the soil is well prepared and pits are filled with farm-yard manure. Frequent irrigation is essential in the dry season. Inter-crops, such as vegetables, are usually allowed for a couple of years between the rows of guava trees. Guava starts blossoming after about three years. Fruit bearing trees are given heavy doses of manure.

In February-March, the soil is dug up and the roots laid bare for a fortnight. Before the trees shed leaves, the beds are manured and irrigated. The beds are frequently pulverised. Fruits are plucked when they turn yellowish. There are two seasons of this fruit, *viz.*, one in August-September and another in November-December.

The principal vegetables in this district are, onion, brinjal, sweet potato, cabbage, tomato, lady's finger, carrot, radish and *wal*. They occupy an area of 1069.605 hectares (2,641 acres) in the district. The following table gives the acreage under vegetables in the years 1958-59, 1959-60 and 1960-61 in the district:—

TABLE No. 21

AREA UNDER VEGETABLES (TALUKA-WISE) IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1958-59, 1959-60 AND 1960-61

(Area in hectares[1])

Taluka	Total Vegetables*		
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Amravati	199·260 (492)	378·675 (935)	293·625 (725)
Chandur	140·130 (346)	118·260 (292)	179·415 (443)
Morshi	193·995 (479)	193·185 (477)	197·640 (488)
Daryapur	126·765 (313)	148·635 (367)	144·180 (356)
Achalpur	273·375 (675)	308·205 (761)	244·215 (603)
Melghat	8·100 (20)	6·075 (15)	10·530 (26)
District Total	941·625 (2,325)	1,153·035 (2,847)	1,069·605 (2,641)

[1]Figures in brackets are in acres.

*Also includes the acreage under Sweet potato, Topioca, Onion, Carrot, Radish, Cabbage, Brinjal, Tomato, Feaugreek, *Bhendi*, Musk Melon, and other vegetables.

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Vegetables.

The vegetable production in Amravati district is limited to meet only local demand. There is no exportable surplus of vegetables. There are marked seasonal variations in vegetable supply which is ample during the period between October and March.

Onion.

Onion (*Kanda*), a tuber vegetable, is grown all over the district except the Melghat tahsil. It covered an area of 205.740 hectares (508 acres) in 1960-61.

It is mainly a garden crop taken in soft black loam soil. The land is ploughed and pulverised thoroughly. Onion seeds are sown on raised seed beds in September and the seedlings are transplanted in October-November. Before transplanting the soil is irrigated. This crop requires very liberal manuring. Rotten cowdung and phosphate are preferred.

The onion bulbs are ready for harvesting in about three months. The average yield of this crop ranges from 2612.400 Kg. to 3732.000 Kg. (70 maunds to 100 maunds) per acre under ideal conditions.

Sweet Potato.

Sweet potato (*ratale*), a root vegetable, occupied an area of 179.820 hectares (444 acres) in 1960-61. Though Achalpur and Daryapur tahsils are the main producers of *ratale*, it is also fairly produced in the Morshi and Chandur tahsils.

Cuttings or sets with three nodes are planted on both the sides of the ridges. The crop needs about six cart-loads of manure and frequent irrigation. It thrives well in rich black soil. It is ready for harvest in about six month's time. *Ratales* are eaten green, boiled or roasted. The leaves are used as green fodder for cattle.

Radish.

Radish (*mula*), though usually produced as a main crop, is also taken as a mixed* crop or inter-crop. It is grown in the rainy season as well as in the winter. But the winter crop is the main one. The winter radish are more tasty, crisp and fully grown. Radish is sown by propagating the seed either on bare soil or in other crops. Radish requires frequent irrigation at an interval of five to six days. The roots (*mula*) get ready for harvesting (uprooting) in about five weeks.

The roots as well as leaves are used as vegetable and in the preparation of salad.

Brinjal.

Brinjal (*Vangi*) is one of the most important vegetable crops in Amravati district. It covered an area of 205.335 hectares (507 acres) in 1960-61. It is grown all over the district except Melghat tahsil. Though it is sometimes grown as a rain-fed crop, *Vangi* is mainly an irrigated vegetable crop.

*It is said to be mixed crop when radish is planted mixed with some other vegetables or wheat crop ; while in inter-crop radish is planted in rows in between the rows of other crops.

Brinjal.

Brinjal seeds are sown in seed-beds in the beginning of June. The seedlings are ready for transplantation in July. The seedlings are planted in rows which are about 0.610 m. (two feet) apart. They begin to bear from October. The summer brinjal crop is planted in January. It begins to bear from the end of March.

Brinjal is used very often as a vegetable at home and at community feasts.

Cabbage.

Cabbage (*kobi*) occupied an area of 103.680 hectares (256 acres) in 1960-61. It is cultivated in loamy or clay loam soil. Intensive manuring and irrigation are of extreme importance for cabbage cultivation Top-dressing of oil cake and ammonium sulphate is usually given after one month of plantation. The seeds of cabbage are sown in nursery beds in August and the seedlings are transplanted in September. The crop gets ready for harvesting in about three to four months. The cabbage heads are used as vegetable whereas leaves are fed to cattle.

Tomato.

Tomato is mainly a winter crop in the district. It occupies an area of 66.015 hectares (163 acres) in 1960-61. Medium black soil is highly suitable for tomato cultivation. It is produced on a considerable scale in the Amravati tahsil.

Tomato seeds are propagated in nursery beds and the seedlings are transplanted after three to four weeks. Two seedlings are planted together. It is also grown as a mixed crop alongwith chillis and brinjals. It requires frequent irrigation and heavy doses of manure. Ammonia sulphate and groundnut cake are highly beneficial to the crop. It is harvested after about 2½ to 3 months. Green tomatoes are used as a vegetable, while the ripe ones are either eaten as a table fruit or used in the preparation of salad.

IMPLEMENTS.

The implements and farm tools used by agriculturists in the district are generally of the old and indigenous pattern. Even pace does not appear to have been maintained by the agriculturist with the improvement in the technique of agricultural production. The size of existing farms also sometimes does not allow the farmer to use mechanical appliances.

Ploughs, harrows, levellers, sowing drill and clod crushers are the important implements connected with the various phases of agricultural operations. Besides these, several hand tools are also used for allied farm operations. A few improved implements, such as, iron ploughs, blowing fans, threshing and separating appliances have been introduced. The iron plough is gradually replacing the old indigenous wooden plough.

A description of some of the major implements is given below.

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IMPLEMENTS.

Plough.

The wooden plough (*nangar*) is made of *babhul* (acacia arabica) wood by local carpenters. It comprises four essential parts, *viz*., the main body (*khod*), beam (*dandi*), ploughshare (*phal*), and stilt (*rumhane*). The main body is the central part to which the others are attached. It gives the necessary weight for the penetrating action of the ploughshare. It is about three feet long and consists of a head and shoe. The head is thicker while the shoe is tapering to a point, flat at the top and triangular at the bottom. The share which is sharp at the end is fixed to the shoe. It is about two feet long and projects about six inches beyond the point of the shoe. It is secured to the shoe by means of an iron ring. The beam which is fixed to the body in a particular angle is about 3.048 to 3.658 metres (10 to 12 feet) long. The stilt which is fixed with a short grip or handle (*muthya*) is attached to the beam at the back end. It is used for handling the plough by the plough-man. The yoke is tied to the front end of the beam by means of a thick rope, known as *waltya*. Plough opens a triangular furrow with a depth of 0.152 m. to 0.229 m. (6″ to 9″).

A number of progressive cultivators, owning big holdings, possess iron ploughs. The iron ploughs are preferred to the indigenous type because they make the soil more loose and friable. Iron ploughs are worked with two to five pairs of bullocks depending upon the size of the plough and the texture of the land.

Harrow.

The harrow (*bakhar*), an indigenous implement, is used for crushing the clods and making the soil arable. It is generally made of *babhul* and comprises five main components, *viz*., head, prongs (*jankudav*), iron blade (*pas*), beam (*dandi*) and stilt (*rumhane*). The iron blade is attached to the two prongs fixed to the head. It is about 3′ to 3½′ long. The yoke is attached to the beam by means of a thick rope.

There are two types of harrows prevalent in the district, *viz*., the heavy harrow (*moghada bakhar*) and the small one. The heavy harrow is usually used for deep harrowing which serves as preparatory tillage before sowing. The small harrow is used for removing jowar stubbles and cotton stalks. It is also used for preliminary harrowing, for covering the seeds sown and for interculturing the broad spaced crops.

Seed-drill.

The seed-drill (*tifan*) is also an indigenous implement used for sowing operations. It is made of good *babhul* wood by village carpenters. The main components of this implement are the main head, three coulters (*jankudav*), a beam (*danda*), three bamboo tubes and a bowl (*chale*). The head is the central part to which are attached the coulters at the bottom, stilt on the upper side and beam on the front side. Pointed drills, made of iron, are attached to the coulters. The bowl (*chale*) is connected with the three coulters by three bamboo tubes. Seeds are put in the bowl from where they pass through the tubes into the furrows created by the coulters.

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Seed-drill.

The following type of seed-drills are prevalent in Amravati:—

(1) *Tifan.*—It is a three coultered drill used for sowing *kharif* jowar.

(2) *Argada.*—It is either three coultered or four coultered. Bowl and bamboo tubes are not attached to the coulters of an *argada.* But bamboo pipes, each fixed with a small bowl on the top (locally known as *sarate*), are tied by ropes to each of the coulters of the seed-drill. The *sarates* are operated by women who pour seeds into the respective bowls in a specified proportion. The *sarates* are pulled along with the seed-drill and the seeds pass into the furrows opened by the coulters. The *argada* is used for sowing of cotton and groundnut. In some cases groundnut seeds are dibbled by female workers in furrows drilled by the *argada.*

(3) *Duse or Kathani Tifan.*—This is usually a two coultered drill. It is heavy in weight which enables seeds in the rabi season to be sown deep in the soil. The weight of the head helps penetrating action of the coulters. It resembles the *tifan* in all other respects, and is used for sowing operations of wheat, gram, coriander, and mustard. Usually a pair of bullocks is yoked to a *duse* though two pairs are also required to be yoked sometimes.

Interculturing Implements.

Interculturing implements are miniature harrows. *Dawra* (hoe) which has a constructional design like the harrow is used for interculturing cotton, jowar, *mug*, *udid*, groundnut, etc. At times a small *bakhar* is also used for interculturing broad spaced crops. *viz.,* chillis, brinjals, banana and jowar.

Generally two or three hoes are tied to the yoke by thin ropes around the respective head pieces and beams. This enables the farmer to speed up the interculturing operations. Big land-holders operate even five hoes at a time. Each hoe is guided by one man. With a set of five hoes, about 8 acres of land are interculturerd in a day, whereas a set of three interculturers about five acres.

Harvesting implements.

The principal tool for harvesting is sickle (*koyata*) which is used for cutting jowar, bajra, *tur*, *mug*, *udid*, wheat and gram. The *kudali* is used for digging out groundnut and root crops.

Threshing Implements.

Very few implements are used for threshing of grain. They consist of *datari*, *tivhai* (tripod stand), baskets, chaff-cutter and blowing fan. Threshing of jowar, bajra, wheat and *udid* is usually done by driving a few bullocks in a circular motion on the ear-heads of the corn. A gang of bullocks, with their necks tied to one another, is driven around. *Datari* (a tool having five to six teeth fixed on a small head piece) is used for stirring and separating grains from the chaff or husk. A special broom is also used for separating chaff from the heap of grains

Hand Tools.

Besides sickle, there are a number of hand tools used in various operations. They consist of axe (*kurhad*), pick-axe.

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IMPLEMENTS.

pawada, Kudali, sabbal, etc. Budding knife is used for preparing orange nurseries. Many farmers now use rotary dusters, hand sprayers and bucket sprayers for spraying or dusting crops with insecticides.

Water-Lifts.

Water-lift (*mot*) is the chief contrivance for lifting water from wells. *Mot* is made of tanned hide by a local cobbler. The two ends of the *mot* are tied by two separate ropes to the yoke. There is actually a double yoke, about four feet in length. The bullocks yoked to the *mot* are driven forward and backward over the ramp. The two ropes pass over the two revolving wheels.

A number of water-pumps worked either on oil engines or electric motors are found in the district. This has facilitated well-irrigation on a larger scale.

Bullock-cart.

Bullock-cart still continues to be the most common means of transport of agricultural produce and appliances. It is known as *gadi* or *bandi.* The frame of a cart is like an isosceles triangle tapering towards the front side. The frame is supported on two cart-wheels. A few planks are fixed on the frame with some space. There are about four holes on two sides of the frame for fixing vertical props. The entire frame is covered by a mat made of thick bamboo straps. The frame is made of either *shadada* or *sag* wood. The axle is fixed in a rectangular log of the right size. The axle is tied with the front angle of the frame by a tight rope or iron rope.

LIVE-STOCK.

Live-stock occupies an important place in the agricultural economy of the district. It also constitutes one of the farmer's most coveted possessions. As the existing conditions of agriculture in India afford little scope for the use of mechanical devices for agricultural operations, cattle labour has to be largely relied upon. Draught power required for agricultural operations such as ploughing, harrowing, drawing water for irrigation, transport, etc., is derived mainly from bullocks. Cows are a source of milk which is highly in demand. Live-stock also provides much of the organic manure used on the farms. Hence a pair of bullocks for draught and a cow or buffalo for milk and manure are to be commonly found with a large number of farmers. Further, in rural areas a farmer's status is judged by the number of cattle he maintains. In fact no farmer can do farming economically without the aid of live-stock. Table No. 22 gives comparative statistics of bovine population in Amravati District in 1951, 1956 and 1961 while table No. 23 gives taluka-wise distribution of live-stock in Amravati district in 1961.

TABLE No. 22

BOVINE POPULATION IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1951, 1956 AND 1961

Classification of Cattle	Cow class			Buffalo class		
	1951	1956	1961	1951	1956	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Male (Over 3 years)—						
Breeding bulls	1,000	1,826	2,910	3,221	415	449
Working bulls	35,252	42,976	59,425	201	223	274
Other bulls	1,025	1,099	1,157	..	..	260
Females (Over 3 years)—						
In milk	32,720	36,952	37 098	7,239	7,679	9,188
Dry	16 722	19,979	20,295	2,658	2,972	3,772
Not calved	2,758	3,120	3,099	7,367	9,644	1,187
For work	799	1,088	1,100	100	102	117
Others	134	179	220	50	50	45
Young stock—						
Under 1 year						
Males	14,969	17,002	17,487	500	529	596
Females	15,163	16,105	18,596	2,005	2,177	2,943
1 to 3 years—						
Males	28,639	31,523	32,359	8,955	11,672	13,061
Females	272	2,921	3,931	9,219	9,312	11,179
Total	1,49,458	1,74,776	1,94,950	41,515	44,973	43,071

TABLE No. 23

DISTRIBUTION OF LIVE-STOCK IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT (TALUKA-WISE), 1961

Taluka	Bovines over 3 years: For work: Oxen	Bovines over 3 years: For work: He-buffaloes	Bovines over 3 years: For breeding: Bulls	Bovines over 3 years: For breeding: He-buffaloes	Bovines over 3 years: For other purposes: Oxen	Bovines over 3 years: For other purposes: He-buffaloes
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Morshi	21,650	150	2,629	260	600	230
Amravati	37,775	124	204	189	557	30
Daryapur	37,955	97	103	39	474	22
Melghat	26,802	207	326	33	9	89
Achalpur	15,424	25	92	89	1,842	129
Chandur	34,941	41	387	214	2,006	69

Taluka	Milch cattle: In milk: Cows	Milch cattle: In milk: She-buffaloes	Milch cattle: Dry: Cows	Milch cattle: Dry: She-buffaloes	Milch cattle: Others: Cows	Milch cattle: Others: She-buffaloes
(1)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Morshi	21,755	4,340	6,131	1,163	502	92
Amravati	15,343	4,848	14,164	2,609	652	77
Daryapur	18,640	5,741	1,349	1,825	152	134
Melghat	6,017	1,306	8,116	1,952	916	103
Achalpur	6,950	5,907	6 278	4,115	3,575	3,275
Chandur	15,564	6,934	19,482	5,077	2,000	2,405

Taluka	Young Stock		Total bovines	Horses and Ponies	Sheep	Goats	Others
	Cow calves	Buffalo calves					
(1)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
Morshi	21,170	2,842	83,514	1,102	3.908	15,339	1,419
Amravati	37,965	6,350	123,470	1,162	10,780	26.565	1,986
Daryapur	22,455	3,713	92,700	2,164	20,914	37,173	6,222
Melghat	11,374	2,169	59,419	293	..	11,339	7,939
Achalpur	13,742	3,758	65,198	691	10,248	13,836	25,953
Chandur	20,804	5,179	114,003	841	7.497	27,635	22,098

CHAPTER 4.

Agriculture and Irrigation.

LIVE-STOCK.

According to Captain Meadows, "the Province of Berar contains the finest draught cattle in India". It is impossible to say what particular breed he referred to. In Amravati district there are three breeds of cattle: (1) The *Umarda* or *Gaorani* breed, (2) The *Khamgaon* breed, and (3) the *Ghat* or *Pahari* breed. Of these, *Umarda* cattle are considered the most suitable for the plains, whereas the *Ghat* cattle do better in the hilly tracts.

Umarda breed.

The *Umarda* breed is divided into two well defined types which are said to differ in colour only. The bullock of this breed is of medium size and is white or red in colour. The body is compact: the head is well placed and broad between the eyes: the forehead is slightly concave: the horns are of medium size: the muzzle is broad and usually dark in colour: the nostrils are large; the neck is short and thick with a rather small dewlap; the back is straight and the hump of ordinary size. The animal is well proportioned, active and keen-spirited. The breed is very hardy, and a pair will trot 30 to 40 miles a day. Cattle of this breed are common in Amravati, Achalpur, Daryapur and Chandur tahsils.

Khamgaon breed.

The *Khamgaon* cattle are seen mostly in Daryapur tahsil where the soil is deep and heavy to work. This breed is the largest and strongest of the Berar breeds, and is well suited for heavy work on black cotton soil. The typical *Khamgaon* bullock is a big bony animal with mixed colours, the general colour being red or tanned red mixed with white. His hoofs, muzzle, horns and inside of the ears are of a chocolate colour forehead is broad and slightly convex. the muzzle fine and the hump well developed. horns are of medium length and rather thick at the base. The *Khamgaon* bullock is round in the barrel and altogether a strong, massive animal. As a trotter he is inferior to the *Umarda* breed, and is fatigued earlier. As a strong draught animal he is well suited for working in heavy soils.

Melghat breed.

The *Melghat* or *Pahari* bullocks are smaller but active and hardy. They are well suited for the conditions of the hilly tracts. The forehead is straight with a vertical depression midway. The limbs are strong and well apart. The pelvis is rather lean and narrow and the dewlap small.

Ever since the boom of land prices and prices of agricultural commodities, more and more of the fallow lands and culturable waste lands, which were formerly available for pastures have been brought under cultivation. Consequently the cultivator has been compelled to reduce the number of his cattle and to provide a daily supply of fodder for his working bullocks. The cultivator finds it more profitable to produce agricultural goods than to rear cattle. This has created a shortage of good cattle.

Buffaloes.

There are two breeds of buffaloes in the district, the *Gaorani* or Nagpur breed, and the *Malwa* breed. The former are distinguished by their long horns that sweep back over the neck,

the *Malwa* buffaloes are smaller and their horns shorter and slightly crumpled. *Gavalis* keep buffaloes in herds. Jowar stalks, grass and cotton seed are fed to them. An average buffalo in this district yields five to six seers of milk.

Diseases of Cattle.

Epidemics among cattle are very common, and as no care is taken to segregate diseased animals at the first appearance of an outbreak, infection spreads fast in a herd. The diseases most prevalent in this district are rinderpest, foot-and-mouth disease, malignant sore throat and pleuro-pneumonia. Other bovine ailments such as hoven diarrhoea and dysentery are common in the district.

Rinderpest is a common disease, but young buffaloes especially are liable to it. An animal attacked by it generally dies within a week. The curative measures consist of feeding the animal with ghee, *mug*, and rice water. Inoculation for rinderpest is practised. Foot-and-mouth disease is very common. The animal attacked by it is made to stand in mud and *dikamali* (resin of *Gardenia lucida*) boiled in linseed or *til* oil is rubbed on the sores of the feet. If there are ulcers on the tongue, they are treated with alum powder. Should the hoofs split, the animal becomes lame for life, but the disease is not fatal.

The rate of cattle mortality has been reduced to some extent due to the availability of veterinary facilities in the district.

Sources of Live-stock.

The district neither exports nor imports live-stock. The main source of cattle to the farmers is from the weekly markets. However, some animals of pure breed are imported from distant places in the State for use in key village centres and cattle breeding farms and for improving the local progeny at farms. The important cattle markets in the district are located at Amravati, Badnera, Morshi, Rajura, Chandur Railway, Shendurjana, Achalpur and Chandur Bazar.

Products.

The main live-stock products in the district comprise milk, eggs, wool manures, skins and hides. The following table gives the average output per head of cow, buffalo, chicken, cattle sheep and goat and the estimated value of the products thereof. It should, however, be noted that the statistics are based upon certain estimates, and no accuracy is claimed for them.

TABLE No. 24

Products	Average output (per head) per annum	Total products	Estimated value
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Kg.	Kg.	Rs.
Cow milk	181·200 (400 lbs.)	11,628,872·400 (25,670,800 lbs.)	54,98,196
Buffalo milk	385·050 (850 lbs.)	8,545,414·650 (18,864,050 lbs.)	1,66,00,364

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LIVE-STOCK.

Products.

TABLE No. 24—*cont.*

Products	Average output (per head) per annum	Total products	Estimated value
	Kg.	Kg.	Rs.
Eggs	24·915 (55 lbs.)	1,701,420·435 (3,755,895 lbs.)	7,51,179
Manure (bovine)	6 cart-loads.	34,97,066 cart-loads.	1,73,85,330
Manure (ovine)	¼ cart-loads.	94,291 cart-loads.	7, 54,320
Hides of cattle	..	47,539	2,37,695
Skins of bovines	..	46,743	46,743
Wool	0·680 (1½ lbs.)	35,347·590 (78,030 lbs.)	1.56,060

Fodder-supply.

The district is self-sufficient in fodder-supply. The cultivators produce fodder in their farms. The fodder and cattle feed consist mainly of *Kadbi*, grass, stalks from groundnut crop, *Kutar* prepared from the leaves and stalks of wheat, bajra and *tur*, etc. *Udid* grains, cotton-seeds and groundnut cake are served as concentrated feeding to cattle.

POULTRY.

Poultry is kept for meat and eggs. Most of the poultry birds kept in the district are of *deshi* and non-descript variety. However, recently farmers were supplied a few cocks of White Leghorn variety for breeding and upgrading *deshi* poultry. There is no poultry experimental farm or poultry research station in the district. However, demonstration and propaganda work are carried on throughout the district by the District Animal Husbandry Officer aided by 13 veterinary-*cum*-extension officers for animal husbandry and subordinate staff. There are four poultry demonstration centres in the district located at Amravati, Warud, Tivsa and Achalpur. Gramsevaks also play a useful role in carrying out the propaganda and demonstration work. A poultry training centre has not yet been established in the district. There exists a scheme of granting subsidies and loans from Block Development funds to interested poultry breeders for the construction of poultry houses, purchase of necessary equipment and birds, etc. In 1960-61 loans to the tune of Rs. 5,000 were disbursed under the above scheme, in Achalpur and Chandur Railway block areas. There were no poultry breeding societies in the district. In 1960, the annual revenue from poultry amounted to Rs. 2,045.

Poultry Development.

With a view to upgrading the local non-descript poultry birds, cocks of White Leghorn breed are sold on exchange basis to the poultry breeders. Chicks, two to five months old, are brought form the Central Poultry Farm, Nagpur, at four poultry

POULTRY.
Poultry Development.

Demonstration Centres which also function as Chick Rearing Centres. Through four such centres functioning at Amravati, Warud, Tivsa and Achalpur, chicks are sold to interested poultry keepers. Eggs for hatching are also supplied at these centres. Prophylactic vaccinations against "Ranikhet" and 'Fowl Pox' diseases are carried out by a team of veterinary officer and stockmen. A scheme for establishing one district poultry breeding station is under consideration. Relevant statistics regarding the progress made during the Second Five-Year Plan is given in the following statement:—

Progress recorded during the Second Five-Year Plan

Number of eggs sold for table purpose	6,013
Number of eggs sold for hatching	876
Number of birds sold for breeding purpose—	
(a) Cocks	115
(b) Hens	225
(c) Chicks	323
Number of birds vaccinated against Ranikhet disease—	
(a) Prophylactic	1,40,685
(b After outbreak	2,658
Number of birds vaccinated against Fowl Pox—	
Prophylactic	2,723

There was a proposal that during the Third Five-Year Plan, a poultry breeding centre should start functioning. For this purpose it was decided to convert the Chick Rearing Centre at Amravati into a Poultry Breeding Centre. It was planned that this should provide pure-bred chicks, hens and cocks and eggs of pure-bred hens to the cultivators in the district through the remaining three chick rearing centres at Warud, Tivsa and Achalpur. Besides the foregoing, no special work has been done as far as poultry development is concerned. The poultry population of the district comprised 1,84,185 fowls and 1,434 ducks as per 1961 cattle census.

DAIRY CONDITIONS.

The district possesses three fairly distinct breeds of cattle: (i) *Umarda* or *Gaorani*, (ii) *Khamgaon* and (iii) *Ghat*. The *Malwa* and *Purnathadi* or Ellichpuri breeds are more common amongst the buffaloes. There are about 1,54,500 cows over three years and 38,740 buffaloes over three years. Out of 1.54 lakh cows more than 33 per cent are dry. The average yield per day per cow during a lactation period of 200 days is about one seer. The average yield per day per buffalo for a lactation of 300 days is three seers.

There are two Co-operative Dairy Societies' Milk Unions registered in the district, one at Amravati and the other at Anjangaon Surji. The Amravati Jilha Dudh Utpadak Sahakari Sangh supplies the entire quantity of milk to the Government Milk Supply Scheme, Amravati, while the Anjangaon Surji Milk Union collects milk from societies in the surrounding areas and

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DAIRY CONDITIONS.

distributes the same in the town. About 50 to 75 litres of milk is collected and distributed every day. For developing the dairy industry in the Anjangaon Block, the Co-operative Department has advanced the loan of Rs. 23,125 and subsidy of Rs. 7,675. The Anjangaon Surji Milk Union, which was registered in 1961, has a membership of 49 and a share capital of Rs. 5,075. The society could not make satisfactory progress on account of lack of proper marketing facilities.

Amravati Jilha Dudh Utpadak Sahakari Sangh Ltd., Amravati, had seven societies affiliated to it. The federation, which was registered on 20th December 1962, with a paid up share capital of Rs. 5,001, started functioning from 1st January 1963. The total quantity of milk supplied by it comes, on an average, to 800 litres per day.

City Milk Supply.

Cows and buffaloes in the city of Amravati number nearly 10,000. Out of them 1,800 cows and 1,500 buffaloes were in milk. They yield about 160 to 180 maunds of milk and almost an equal quantity is imported from the surrounding areas. Thus the daily total consumption in the city is estimated to be about 350 maunds. Of this, nearly 120 maunds of milk was consumed by 226 hotels in the city while the balance was used for domestic consumption. Hotels required more milk in the summer season.

Besides numerous milk producers, numbering about 2,500, there are a few organisations in Amravati which produce and distribute milk: the prominent amongst them being Government Cattle Breeding Farm, Pohra; Gorakshan Sanstha, Amravati; Shivaji College Dairy; Dugdhapurna Dairy, etc.

There is a good scope for encouraging milk production in Melghat taluka, as sufficient grazing facilities are available there. The difficulties experienced by the milk producers in the area are mainly shortage of water and non-availability of fodder. The area is infested with lantana camera which does not allow growth of grass. However, there is an area of 8,093.720 hectares (20,000 acres) of land which could be utilised for fodder production, provided proper attention is given.

Pilot Milk Supply Scheme, Amravati.

For organising the milk industry on scientific and sound footing so as to ensure supply of good quality milk to the citizens of Amravati and for providing remunerative occupation to the agriculturists round about Amravati, the Government of Maharashtra have launched a Pilot Milk Supply Scheme at Amravati at an estimated cost of about 15 lakhs of rupees. The scheme started functioning from 6th February 1962 and is making a steady progress. The scheme at present is handling about 640 litres of milk per day. The details of the scheme are briefly described in the paragraphs below.

Milk (640 litres) is collected from five co-operative societies: (1) Janata Co-operative Dairy Society, Badnera; (2) Dhanora Co-operative Dairy Society, Dhanora; (3) Nandgaon Co-operative

DAIRY CONDITIONS.
Pilot Milk Supply Scheme, Amravati.

Dairy Society; (4) Gopal Co-operative Dairy Society, Jevad and (5) Shegaon Co-operative Dairy Society, Shegaon. The societies collect the milk from individual producers. Necessary tests as regards the quality of milk are carried out.

The milk on arrival at the dairy is tested for its freshness, fat content, etc. Later, it is graded and weighed. Subsequently, the milk is filtered and pasteurised before it is bottled. The bottled milk is sold to individual customers at milk centres in the city.

IRRIGATION.

Irrigation primarily aims at making good the deficiencies of rainfall, bringing more land under the plough, which remained uncultivated for want of water, and increasing the double cropped area. In brief, the chief object of irrigation is to augment farm produce. The total cropped area in the district stood at 687913.155 hectares (16,98,551 acres) in 1960-61 which included 4477.680 hectares (11,056 acres) of land sown more than once. Net area irrigated by different sources of irrigation amounted to 7063.200 hectares (17,440 acres). Thus the irrigated area hardly formed a little over one per cent of both the gross cropped area and the net area sown viz., 683435.475 hectares (16,87,495 acres). This shows that irrigation facilities throughout the district were not considered adequate. Tables No. 25 and No. 26 furnish relevant data regarding the sources of water-supply and the net area irrigated by them

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IRRIGATION.

TABLE No. 25

SOURCES OF WATER-SUPPLY (TALUKA-WISE)—AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1960-61

Taluka	Government Canals		Private wells		Wells used for irrigation only	Wells used for domestic purposes only	Wells not in use	No. of Oil Engines
	Number	Mileage	Masonry	Non-masonry				
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Amravati	..	..	1,272	695	1,967	4,691	1,655	129
Chandur	..	..	948	1,540	2,488	4,710	1,385	178
Morshi	3	3	4,932	1,614	6,546	12,915	83	414
Daryapur	..	..	481	296	777	10,931	826	36
Achalpur	2	4	1,547	498	2,045	12,181	1,184	59
Melghat	..	..	21	..	21	197	45	8
District Total ..	5	7	9,201	4,643	13,844	45,625	5,178	824

TABLE No. 26

NET AREA IRRIGATED IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1960-61

(Area in hectares)*

Taluka	Net area irrigated by				Percentage of net area irrigated to net area sown	Total area of crops irrigated	Percentage of total gross irrigated area to total area sown
	Government canals	Tanks	Wells	Total			
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Amravati	..	..	1,069·200 (2 640)	1,069·200 (2,640)	0·66	1,069·200 (2,640)	0·66
Chandur	..	.	1,459·620 (3,604)	1,459·620 (3,604)	1·00	1,459·620 (3,604)	1·00
Morshi	62·775 (155)	4·050 (10)	2,899·395 (7,159)	2,966·220 (7,324)	2·5	2,966·220 (7,324)	2·5
Daryapur	..	.	458·856 (1,133)	458·856 (1,133)	0·4	458·856 (1,133)	0·4
Achalpur	26·730 (66)	..	1,067·985 (2,637)	1,094·715 (2,703)	1·00	1,094·715 (2,703)	1·00
Melghat	..	.	14·580 (36)	14·580 (36)	0·04	14·580 (36)	0·04
District Total	89·505 (221)	4·050 (10)	6,969·645 (17,209)	7,063·200 (17,440)	1·03	7,063·200 (17,440)	1·03

*Figures in brackets are in acres.

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There was no major irrigation work taken up in the district. Only minor irrigation works, *bandharas* and tanks provided irrigation. Brief account of each one of them is given below.

Phakal Nala Anicut: This is an anicut on Phakal nala, four miles from Achalpur on Achalpur-Akot road. It was completed in 1952 as a small village scheme under Grow-More-Food Campaign. The cost of construction amounted to Rs. 23,532. It commands an area of 152.685 hectares (377 acres) whereas the catchment area on anicut site is about 36.260 km.^{2} (14 square miles). It has canals on the left bank having total length of 101 chains, 1.038 km. (5 furlongs and 11 yards). The actual irrigation from the scheme commenced in 1956-57. The main crop taken in lands irrigated by this anicut is cotton, though chillis and other garden crops are also grown.

Pat nala anicut: This work is a diversion scheme. It was taken up as a small village scheme under Grow-More-Food Campaign in 1954, and completed during the same year. The site of the work is 11.265 km. (seven miles) from Morshi near village Bhiva Bundi in Morshi taluka. The anicut with a catchment area of 9.065 km.^{2} (3.50 square miles) was constructed at a cost of Rs. 22,206. Irrigation potential of this anicut is 157.827 hectares (390 acres). In 1955-56 it irrigated an area of 24.907 hectares (61.5 acres).

Pak Nala Anicut: The site of the anicut is near Hiwerkhed, a village 12.88 km. (eight miles) from Morshi town in Morshi taluka. The water of a nala is diverted to canal by constructing masonry bund. This was taken up as a part of the Grow More Food Campaign. It was completed in 1956-57 at a cost of Rs. 41,275. Its catchment area on the site is 78.580 km.^{2} (30.34 square miles), irrigation potential 192.375 hectares (475 acres) and area commanded, 321.570 hectares (794 acres). The area of different crops irrigated by it varied from 130.126 hectares (321.3 acres) in 1957-58 to 53.582 hectares (132.3 acres) in 1960-61.

This work is in charge of Irrigation Department.

Jatamziri Nala: This is an anicut constructed on Jatamziri Nala near Warud. It is a masonry construction with a canal for diverting water from the nala. The work was completed in 1956-57 at a cost of Rs. 15,000. The length of the canal is 22 chains 221.284 metres (one furlong and 22 yards). Its irrigation potential as well as the area commanded by it is 40.500 hectares (100 acres). Area irrigated by it varied between 4.455 hectares (11 acres) in 1956-57 and 45.765 hectares (113 acres) in 1958-59.

This work is under charge of the Revenue Department, since November 1959.

Damayanti Nala: This is situated at a distance of 4.83 km. (three miles) from Morshi town in Morshi taluka. It was constructed in 1956-57 by Morshi Development Block with its own funds. The total cost of construction amounted to Rs. 13,532. The length of the canal is 32.50 chains, 326.897

metres (one and a half furlongs and 27½ yards). Its commanded area is 40.500 hectares (100 acres). This work was handed over in November 1959 to the Revenue Department and is in charge of Morshi Block Development Office. In 1958-59, it irrigated an area of 25.515 hectares (63 acres).

No irrigation was reported during 1959-60 and 1960-61.

Bhimdi Bandhara: The site is situated near village Bhimdi 9.66 km. (six miles) to the north-west of Warud town in Morshi taluka. It is a masonry *bandhara*. Its estimated cost was Rs. 21,197. It was executed with District Development Board Funds. Length of the *bandhara* is 32.940 metres (108 feet) and that of canal is 12 chains, 120.780 metres (132 yards). Area commanded by the work is 60.750 hectares (150 acres). Irrigation from this *bandhara* commenced in the *rabi* season of 1961-62.

Kamlapur Bandhara: This is situated near village Kamlapur, at mile number 17/3 of Rithpur-Tivsa road in Morshi taluka. It is a masonry *bandhara* having a length of 20.435 metres (67 feet). Length of the canal is 35 chains, 331.927 metres (one furlong and 143 yards). The estimated cost of the scheme was Rs. 24,582. It commands an area of 101.250 hectares (250 acres).

Bandhara on Chandrabhaga River: The site of the anicut is near village Deogaon, about 16.10 km. (10 miles) from Achalpur town. The estimated cost of the work was Rs. 89,830. It is a masonry *bandhara* having a total length of 70.150 metres (230 feet). The length of the canal is 2.479 km (1.54 miles). The catchment area of the work is 112.975 km.² (43.62 square miles). Commanded area of the work is 202.500 hectares (500 acres).

There were two tanks, Dabheri tank and Kurha tank, a brief account of which is given below. Tanks.

Dabheri Tank: This village tank is near village Dabheri in Morshi taluka. No details are available regarding its cost of construction. It has an earthen dam and a canal for irrigation. The total length of the canal is 93 chains, 935.431 metres (four furlongs and 143 yards). Water discharging capacity of the canal is two cusecs. The tank commands an area of 243.000 hectares (600 acres). Its catchment area is 3.030 km.² (1.17 square miles). In 1955-56 it irrigated only 4 hectares (10 acres) of land.

Kurha Tank: This tank is situated at about 16.093 km. (10 miles) from village Tivsa on Amravati-Nagpur road. It is near village Kurha in Chandur Railway taluka. It was completed in 1952-53, when scarcity conditions were declared in the district, at a cost of Rs. 32,171. The work comprises an earthen dam and a canal. Commanded area of the tank is 36.450 hectares (90 acres). Its catchment area is 0.777 km.². (0.30 square mile). No irrigation is possible from the tank because it suffers from heavy leakages. However, it serves as a percolation tank.

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Agriculture and Irrigation.

IRRIGATION.

Tanks.

The following statement indicates water rates charged for irrigation of various crops from Phakal Nala Anicut, Pat Nala Anicut, Dabheri Tank and Kurha Tank.

Name of the crop	Rates charged (in rupees) per acre
1. Fruits, Orchards	15·00
2. Cotton, jowar, castor seed, *mug*, *tur*, *udid*, etc... ..	4.00
3. Cotton, jowar and other minor *kharif* crops	1·00*
4. Wheat	2·50
5. Gram	2·00
6. Garden crops: chillis, brinjals, potatoes, onions, carrots, tomatoes, cabbage, etc.	10·00
7. Betel vine plantation and mulberry plants	15·00
8. Sweet potatoes and turmeric	10 and 4*
9. Sugarcane (by wet method)	25·00
10. Sugarcane (by dry method)	15·00

CROP ROTATION.

The system of rotation of crops and the pattern of cropping vary from soil to soil, depending upon irrigation and other available facilities. On heavy soils, cultivators generally grow cotton crop during the first year, and jowar during the second year. During the third, it is left fallow in the *kharif* season and wheat is grown in the *rabi* season.

Generally, all over the district, deep-rooted crops like cotton are rotated with shallow rooted crops such as jowar, wheat and groundnut. Similarly non-leguminous crops such as cotton, jowar and wheat are rotated with the leguminous crops like groundnut, *mug*, *chavli*, *tur*, etc. Roots of the deep-rooted crops penetrate into the soil to a depth of 2.30 metres (9″) to 4.60 metres (18″). If the cultivation of deep-rooted crops is continued year after year on the same land, the soils are required to be heavily manured every year, the reason being that the plant nutrients in the soil till a particular depth up to which the roots penetrate are depleted. The cultivator being familiar with this phenomenon rotates deep-rooted crops with shallow-rooted crops so as to achieve the twin objectives, *viz.*, using fully the available plant food present in the soil without allowing the soils to deteriorate in fertility. Leguminous crops such as groundnut, sann, *tur*, *mug*, etc., have nodules all over their roots. These nodules contain nitrogen fixing bacteria. They fix the nitrogen directly from the air into the soil. Thus

*Rates applicable to lands irrigated in Achalpur taluka only. The water rates included in the Statement are as per old Madhya Pradesh Government circulars.

leguminous crops leave behind them manurial value beneficial to the subsequent crop and also improve the fertility and texture of the soil.

CROP ROTATION.

Crop rotation commonly observed on medium types of soils comprises cotton crop during the 1st year, jowar during the 2nd year and groundnut during the third. Unlike heavy and medium types of soils, lighter types of soils have four-fold crop rotation: cotton crop during the first year, jowar during the second year, *tur* and other miscellaneous crops during the third and groundnut during the fourth. Groundnut is rotated with cotton in Chandur, Morshi and Amravati talukas. The cultivators in Daryapur and Achalpur talukas do not follow rotation but grow cotton because of its high price. At many places in the district where irrigation facilities are available, cotton is followed by groundnut in *kharif* season and by wheat in the *rabi* season. The latter type is known as the double cropping system. Many cultivators take gram or peas after groundnut. Yet another system of crop rotation is followed on heavier types of soils. Cultivators keep the land fallow during *kharif* season. prepare it during the rainy season whenever there is a break of rains and grow wheat crop in the *rabi* season. During the second year, cotton crop is grown.

Various other crop combinations are in vogue with the cultivators. *Tur, mug, udid* and bajra are seldom grown as a sole crop. They are usually produced as a catch crop with other main crops. It is only in very light type of soils which are either eroded or slopping that these crops are produced as single crops. *Tur* is generally produced as a line crop with cotton. After every eighth and twelfth row of cotton, *tur* is sown. Either *mug* or *udid* crop is sown in alternate lines with jowar. Sometimes, *mug* or *udid* seed is mixed with jowar and then sown. *Mug* or *udid* crops get ready for harvest within two to three months. It is harvested earlier, and the jowar crop is left behind for its full growth. In this case, farmer gets *mug* or *udid* crop as a catch crop. Thus, if the season proves to be unfavourable, the farmer gets at least one crop.

SEED SUPPLY.

Generally, it is the practice with all the big as well as medium sized cultivators, to preserve a part of their harvest till the next sowing season so as to utilise it as seed. Only the small and poor cultivators who cannot afford to do so depend on the outside supply for meeting their seed requirements. Besides, those cultivators who want to replace their old seed for the new promising varieties and those who want to undertake cultivation afresh, also depend upon the outside supply. The cultivator is very careful about the selection of good quality seed. He takes care that the grains preserved by him are bold and healthy and are lustrous in colour and at the same time free from insect attack.

Selection of seed is confined mostly to jowar, wheat, *tur* and groundnut. A few progressive cultivators get their cotton ginned privately and separate the seed from cotton.

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SEED SUPPLY.

Selected earheads of good size, having bold lustrous grains are picked up on the threshing yard and threshed separately. The threshed grains are preserved along with the *bhusa* (chaff) which causes itching on contact. This is sometimes mixed with some quantity of neem leaves to prevent insect attack. Wheat seed and jowar seed is stored in *kanagi* made out of *tur* stalks, cotton stalks or other suitable material like bamboo. Groundnut pods are sieved and pods of bigger size are selected for seed purposes, and filled in gunny bags. No special precaution is taken in preserving groundnut seed.

Many big cultivators store seed in excess of their own requirements and sell it to other needy cultivators at the sowing time. They get a premium over the market rates prevailing for the ordinary grain of its kind. Merchants dealing in cotton and groundnut also sell seed to the cultivators.

Taluka Co-operative Agricultural Associations established in each taluka also stock and distribute the seed. Since the introduction of cotton pool system by the Agriculture Department, the Agricultural Associations have been entrusted with the cotton pool work in each taluka of the district. The collection of *kapas* and its ginning are done under the supervision of the officer of the Agricultural Department so that the purity and quality of seed is ensured. This seed is purchased by the Agriculture Department and handed over to the Agricultural Associations for distribution.

There are two big Government Seed and Demonstration Farms in the district; one at Achalpur established in 1927 and another at Amravati established in 1954-55. They have cultivable area of 101.17 hectares (250 acres) each. Agricultural research*, agronomical research and varietal experiments of different strains are conducted at these farms. The Department of Agriculture is propagating improved strains of cotton, jowar, groundnut and vegetables, evolved at these research stations. The Department of Agriculture established in 1957-58 nine taluka seed farms at Anjangaon, Walgaon, Achalpur, Kusumkot, Yerla, Tersa, Chandur Bazar, Chandur Railway and Dhanova. These farms have an area of 144.058 hectares (356 acres) under them. Nucleus seed thus obtained from these Government farms and the taluka seed farms is multiplied under official supervision, in a suitable locality, on the fields of cultivators known as "registered seed farmers". The resultant produce is again purchased by the Department at a certain premium over the prevailing market rate. This seed is subsequently multiplied on a larger area in the same manner. A brief description of various schemes forming part of the seed improvement and seed supply programme is given below.

Cotton Extension Scheme.

The area under cotton in the district was 2,25,180.000 hectares (5,56,000 acres) in 1950-51, 3,23,190 hectares (7,98,000 acres) in 1956-57 and 3,38,765.490 hectares (8,36,458 acres) in 1958-59. The

*More details about this are given in section on Agricultural Research and Education of this chapter.

area under improved varieties was 39,771.000 hectares (98,200 acres) during 1950-51 and rose to nearly 20,25,000.000 hectares (five lakhs acres) in 1958-59.

SEED SUPPLY. Cotton Extension Scheme.

The varieties recommended and distributed by the Department of Agriculture are Buri 0394, Buri 147 and Virnar 197-3. The distribution of H 420 cotton is stopped since 1957-58. The cotton extension scheme is financed partially by the Indian Central Cotton Committee. The cotton extension scheme includes Virnar Cotton Seed Distribution and Multiplication Scheme introduced in the district from 1958-59. It is fully financed by the State Government.

Pilot Wheat Seed Scheme.

This scheme is in operation in the district since 1955-56. Hy 65 wheat seed is distributed under this scheme. The performance of this variety under irrigation has been quite satisfactory. However, under unirrigated conditions its outturn is not satisfactory. During 1956-57, rust disease affected the wheat crop on a large scale, and varieties such as *bansi*, *bansipalli* and *vijay* suffered severely. But it was observed that damage to Hy 65 crop was almost negligible. In 1955-56, 42.923 q. (115 maunds) of improved seed were distributed as against 331.437 q. (888 maunds) in 1956-57, 244.659 q. (655½ maunds) in 1957 58 and 75.021 q. (201 maunds) in 1959-60. Its cultivation occupied 63.3015 hectares (156.3 acres), 479.5200 hectares (1,184 0 acres) and 107.325 hectares (265.00 acres) in 1955-56, 1956-57 and 1958-59, respectively.

Groundnut Seed Distribution.

This scheme is in operation in the district since 1956 57. Improved variety Ak 12-24 evolved by the department was cultivated and distributed throughout the district as shown below:-

Year	Quantity distributed (in quintals)	Area covered (in hectares)
1956-57	180 27 (483)	151·75 hect (375)
1957-58	509·09 (1,364)	526·08 hect. (1,300)
1958-59	1106 66 (2,965)	1,011·69 hect. (2,500)
1959-60	1191 38 (3,192)	1,214·04 hect. (3,000)

Other Improved Seeds.

Other seeds of improved varieties of jowar, *tur*, Kopargaon *mug*, etc., are also propagated and distributed by the department. Improved vegetable seed is collected by the *bagwans* (dealers in vegetable) who sell it to the needy cultivators at a premium. Citrus nurseries are raised by the well-to-do cultivators or landlords nearabout Warud. On an average, annually about 4,00,000 plants are raised on 60 private nurseries. The notable fact is that these plants are sold to cultivators from far and wide.

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MANURES.

Generally, every cultivator is aware of the benefits accruing from the application of organic manures. The amount of farm-yard manure or compost to be applied depends upon the nature of the crop and the fertility or quality of the soil. If irrigation facilities are available, as in the case of garden lands, liberal doses of manure are applied. Lands in which cotton, bananas, citrus fruits, chillis, etc., are produced require heavy manurial replacement to provide adequate nutrition to the plants. Hence they require careful and liberal manuring. In Morshi taluka, around Warud and Jarud, lands are suited to garden crops such as citrus fruits, plantains, etc. The farmers at these places are so much in the habit of using farmyard manure on a significant scale that they find it difficult to obtain sufficient manure to meet their requirements. Many needy farmers do not hesitate to import the farmyard manure in trucks, from Nagpur and are prepared to pay higher prices for it rather than allow their orchards to go without manure.

Sugarcane, oranges, plantains and chillis require manuring every year. Orange trees are manured by applying about 45.36 kg. (100 lbs.) of farmyard manure per tree per annum. Other garden crops and vegetables are given a heavy dose of farmyard manure up to 50 cart-loads per hectare (20 cart-loads per acre). Generally, *kharif* jowar is not manured as it is taken as a rotation crop after cotton and benefits from the residual effects of manure applied to cotton. However, a marginal dose of five to ten cart-loads of farmyard manure is applied to jowar. Groundnut crop is given a nominal dose of five cart-loads of farmyard manure. Cotton, generally rotated with groundnut crop, is usually manured once in three years. It is manured at the rate of about 50 cart-loads of farmyard manure per hectare. However, in Daryapur and Achalpur talukas, where the soils are deep and heavy, the cotton crop is grown and manured year after year.

Green Manuring.

Another important way of enriching the soils is green manuring. The Department of Agriculture has introduced the scheme for distribution of sann seed for green manuring from 1958-59. It helps to improve the fertility and the texture of the soils. Sann seed is broadcast on the onset of the monsoon. When it attains maximum vegetative growth in about two to two and a half months, it is ploughed and allowed to rot. An acre of land so manured with sann seed is supposed to have received organic manure, sufficient for a period of two or three years.

Sheep Folding.

The excreta of sheep and goats also serves as a very valuable manure. There are shepherds in the district who wander from village to village with their flocks of sheep, each numbering over a thousand heads. The farmers enter into contracts with the shepherds for quartering their sheep in the night on farms. It is estimated that during a night one thousand sheep and goats give five or six cart-loads of manure. The flocks of sheep and goats are moved from place to place in the same farm during

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MANURES.

the night so as to ensure even distribution of urine and their droppings over the field.

Town Compost.

Of late, the conversion of town and farm refuse into compost manure is becoming more common. The Agriculture Department has induced municipalities and big grampanchayats in the district to produce compost manure from the town refuse, cow-dung, stable litter, etc., collected and disposed of by them. With a view to stepping up the production and distribution of compost manure the Government gives a subsidy to compost preparing centres. This has given impetus to the 12 municipalities in the district which are engaged in the preparation and distribution of town compost. In 1958-59, their compost preparing activities covered an area of 555.8625 hectares (1,372.5 acres). The details of their activities are given in the following statement: —

Compost Preparation and Distribution by Municipalities in Amravati District, 1958-59

Name of the municipality	Production (in Cubic metres)*	Distribution (in Cubic metres)*
Amravati	7,971·600 (2,84,700)	7,333·200 (2,61,900)
Achalpur City	1,855·000 (66,550)	1,309·000 (46,750)
Daryapur	632·800 (22,600)	431·200 (15,400)
Morshi	1,280·160 (45,720)	1,199·520 (42,840)
Chandur Railway	302·484 (10,803)	33·600 (1,200)
Chandur Bazar	394·600 (14,100)	453·600 (16,200)
Anjangaon	1,876·000 (67,000)	1,687·000 (60,250)
Dhamangaon	645·120 (23,040)	665·000 (23,750)
Warud	1,436·400 (51,300)	1,655·640 (59,130)
Badnera	1,651·104 (58,968)	1,687·392 (60,264)
Achalpur	1,204·000 (43,000)	2,254·000 (80,500)
Shendurjana	5,054·000 (1,80,500)	505·400 (18,050)

*Figures in brackets are in cubic feet.

Rural Compost.

The Agriculture Department is making every effort to popularise compost preparation in rural areas. It has asked grampanchayats and the cultivators to prepare compost from

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. MANURES. Rural Compost.

the available rural waste and rubbish with a view to ensuring increased supply of organic manures which are in short supply. Shirasgaon Kasba and Talegaon Dasasar were the gram-panchayats who stole the lead. It is interesting to note that the use of compost manure enabled the cultivators to produce 1452.880 m. tons (1,430 tons) of additional yield. The following statement shows the number of villages participating in the rural compost programme in 1958-59.

Rural Compost in Amravati District, 1958-59

No. of participating villages	No. of pits dug	No. of pits filled		Compost prepared (in tons)	Area covered (in acres)	Additional yield obtained (in tons)
		Old	New			
586	4,852	4,852	1,820	28,964·128 M. tons. (28,508)	1,158·705 hect. (2,861)	1,452·880 M. tons. (1,430)

The Department of Agriculture gives expert advice in adopting a method of preparation of farmyard manure which aims at avoiding loss of nitrogen. It improves the manurial value and results in the production of rich manure. The progress recorded by villages in the preparation of farmyard manure till March 1959 is shown in the following statement.

Preparation of Farmyard Manure by villages in Amravati District, 1959

No. of participating villages	No of pits dug and filled	Farmyard manure produced (in tons)	Area covered (in acres)	Additional yield obtained (in tons)
586	2,000	6,096·000 M. tons (6,000)	242·80 hect. (600)	304·800 M. tons. (300)

Chemical Fertilisers.

The Department of Agriculture arranges for distribution of nitrogenous fertilisers such as Ammonium Sulphate, Ammonium Phosphate, Nitrate, Urea and Phosphate, through marketing societies and sale and purchase societies. The cultivators have realised the value of fertilisers as they have obtained higher yields through the application of chemical fertilisers. They are being gradually used in large proportions and becoming popular They are used for food crops, non-food crops and commercial crops. Heavy doses of fertilisers are applied to the fruit crops and other garden crops wherever irrigation facilities are available. The following statement shows the crop-wise distribution of fertilisers.

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Chemical Fertilisers.

Distribution of Chemical Fertilisers in Amravati District, 1958-59.

Name of the fertiliser	Quantity distributed Tons Cwt.	Area Covered (in hectares)				Additional yield obtained
		Cotton	Sugarcane	Food Crops	Other Crops	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Ammonium Sulphate	905—15	..	..	..	..	935 bales of Cotton.
Ammonium Nitrate . ..	59—14	3,028·590 hect. (7,478)	147·825 hect. (365)	3,584·250 hect. (8,850)	469·800 hect. (1,160)	..
Urea	13?—16	..	..	..	..	1,380·744 M. tons. (1,359 Tons) of foodgrains.
Super Phosphate ..	372—1	1,620·000 hect. (4,000)	..	810·000 hect. (2,000)	291·600 hect. (720)	853·440 M. tons. (840 Tons) of vegetables, chillis, fruits, etc.

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PESTS.

A brief account of various pests of crops in the district is given in the following paragraphs. The extent of damage caused by them cannot be gauged accurately as it depends upon the severity of infestation in the year of attack. Remedial measures mentioned against different pests are such as are within the means of the average cultivator.

Of Cereals. *Chilo Zonellus,* Swinh.

Jowar stem borer (*Chilo Zonellus,* Swinh) causes considerable damage to summer jowar, which is frequently found heavily infested by this pest. Caterpillars bore inside the stems. This causes drying of central shoots, known as 'dead hearts'. This results in reddening of leaves and stems, the extent of damage being four or five per cent.

The period of activity of this pest is from June to November. Young caterpillars bore into the stems where they remain for three-four weeks. Their pupal period varies between seven and ten days while their life cycle extends over five-six weeks. As stem borers are internal feeders, only preventive measures, noted below, are found practicable and economic—

1. The affected plants bearing caterpillars inside the stems are pulled out and destroyed promptly.

2. After harvest, the stubbles of crop are collected and burnt to destroy the hibernating larvae.

3. The jowar fodder is cut into small pieces before it is served to cattle.

Sesamia Inferena Wlk.

Wheat stem borer (*Sesamia inferena Wlk.*) is a pest which causes damage to *rabi* crop of wheat. It also affects maize in dry weather. The caterpillar bores inside the stem. Thereby the central shoot dries up forming 'dead hearts'. This pest is sporadic in nature and causes minor damage. On hatching, the young caterpillars enter the stems and start boring. As this pest also is an internal feeder, the control measures discussed above in respect of jowar stem borer (*Chilo Zonellus,* Swinh) are identically applicable here also.

Termites or White ants.

Insects *termites* or white ants are polymorphic. The host plant of this insect is polyphagus. The workers feed on the roots of the plants as a result of which the affected plants die off. At the advent of monsoons, a few members from the colony possess wings and leave their nests for a flight. After a short flight, the wings break off and pairing and mating takes place. The female (queen) settles in burrow. She establishes a new colony and lays eggs rapidly. The newly hatched nymphs are fed by royal parents till they develop into workers.

Effective control measures include locating the termitoria, digging it out, collecting the queen and eggs and destroying them.

Of Pulses. *Heliothis (armigera) obsolata.*

Gram pod borer known as *Heliothis* (*armigera*) *obsolata* damages the gram crop. Cotton, tomato, peas, tobacco, safflower, opium, etc. are also its principal host plants. The caterpillars

PESTS.

Of Pulses.

Heliothis (armigera) Obsolata.

feed on tender foliage and young pods. They make holes in the pods and eat the developing seeds. This pest is active from November to March.

Caterpillars are handpicked and destroyed in the first stage of infestation as a preventive measure. Thorough ploughing after harvesting the crop is also resorted to in order to expose pupae. Spraying the crop with two per cent D.D.T. spray obtained by diluting 0.453 kg. (1 lb.) of 50 per cent water dispersible D.D.T. powder in 113.65 litres (25 gallons) of water; 277.76 (Sixty) to 363.68 Litres (eighty gallons) of spray is sufficient for a young crop and a 454.60 Litres (hundred gallons) for grown-up crops.

Exelustes atomosa.

Tur plume moth (*Exclustes atomosa*) affects crops of *tur* and *wal*. Full grown caterpillars bore into green pods and feed on developing seeds. On hatching, they scrape the surface of pods, gradually cut holes, feed on seed and become full-grown in about four weeks.

Preventive measures include collection of caterpillars, by shaking shoots and pods, in small trays containing a mixture of kerosene and water. Similarly, leguminous crops are not taken in the same fields during successive years. Insecticidal control measures mentioned under 'gram pod borer' [*Heliothis* (*armigera*) *obsolata*] may also be tried with advantage.

Of Groundnut.

Aphids.

Aphids is an important pest which reduces the vitality and yield of plants by sucking the sap. It also acts as the vector of a serious virus disease commonly known as 'Resette' of groundnut. This pest is of sporadic occurrence in most parts of the State except in Jalgaon and Dhulia districts.

The following control measures are adopted to check the pest:—

1. Spraying the crop with nicotine sulphate in the proportion of one ounce of nicotine into 22.73 Litres (five gallons) of water with 0.113 kg (four ounces) of soap. This is a good measure of control. The total quantity of spray required per hectare is 454.60 to 681.89 Litres (100 to 151 gallons) at a time. Nearly two to three sprayings at weekly intervals are required during late December or early January.

2. Spraying the crop with pyrocolloid in the proportion of one ounce pyrocolloid in 22.73 Litres (five gallons) of water. This also gives good results. About 454.60 to 568.25 Litres (100 to 125 gallons) of spray is required to spray one hectare of cropped land.

Of Cotton.

Boll worm.

Boll worm, a pest of cotton, is of two types *viz.*, spotted boll worm (*Earias Favia* S. E *insulana* B) and pink boll worm (*Pectinophora gossypiella*, S.). The caterpillars of the spotted boll worms bore into the growing shoots of the plants in the initial stage of the crop. Later on, when flower buds appear the larvae bore into them and enter bolls by making holes which are plugged by them with excreta. Infested buds and bolls are shed but they remain on the plant. Bolls open prematurely as a result of which lint of inferior quality is produced. Such lint naturally fetches low price in the market.

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PESTS.

Of Cotton.

Boll worm.

Unlike the spotted boll worms, the caterpillars of the pink boll worms never attack shoots but feed inside the bolls and cause them to drop down. The pest is more harmful to American cotton varieties than to Indian ones. They bore holes and plug them. Thus it becomes difficult to spot out the affected bolls until they drop down.

The following are the main measures of controlling this pest:—

1. Removal and destruction of stubbles to check carryover of the pest to the next season.

2. Destruction of all malvaceous plants growing in off season which serve as alternate hosts for the pest.

3. Fumigation of seed before sowing with carbon-di-sulphide at the rate of 0.057 kg. (two ounces) per .425 cubic metres (15 cubic feet) or heating the seed at 145°F. to destroy hibernating pink boll larvae.

4. Quick removal and destruction of affected parts of plants in the early stage of pest incidence.

5. Six dustings with a mixture of 10 per cent D.D.T., two per cent lindane and 40 per cent sulphur or with one per cent endrin dust.

6. Six sprayings, at fortnightly intervals with endrin at the rate of 0.425 kg. (six ounces) per 0.405 hectare (acre) commencing from a month prior to flowering. Sulphur is added to this mixture in equal quantity to avoid subsequent mite incidence

Dysdercus singulatus Fabr.

Red cotton bug (*Dysdercus singulatus Fabr.*) is another minor pest of cotton. Like cotton, it also affects *bhendi* (lady's finger) crop.

Adults and nymphs suck plant sap and greatly impair the vitality of the plant. Besides, they also feed on seeds and lower their oil content. Lint is soiled by the excreta of these insects. The infected seeds become useless for sowing.

Two measures may be mentioned for controlling the pest, *viz.*, (1) Adults and nymphs can be collected in large numbers by shaking them in a tray containing a mixture of water and a small quantity of kerosene. (2) In case the pest is serious, which rarely happens, the crop may be treated with five per cent Benzene Hexachloride.

Empoasca devastans, Dist.

Jassids (*Empoasca devastans,* Dist.) cause considerable damage to cotton. Both the nymphs and adults suck the cell sap from the leaves as a result of which leaves turn yellowish at the margins. When the infestation is excessive, etiolation and drying up of leaves take place. This is followed by stunted growth of plants. Besides affecting the cotton crop it also causes damage to *bhendi* (lady's finger), brinjal and potato. The extent of jassid infestation on Asiatic varieties is less due to their relative resistance to jassid attack. Wingless nymphs of

PESTS.
Of Cotton.
Emponsaca devastans, Dist.

this pest are found in large numbers on the lower surface of leaves. The pest is active particularly during the monsoon season.

Spraying the crop with five per cent D.D.T. at the rate of 16.783 to 22.68 kg. per hectare (15 to 20 lbs.) is found effective. However, the use of D.D.T. alone is undesirable as many a time it leads to excessive increase in aphid or mite population. Hence, sulphur is mixed with D.D.T. But the mixture of D.D.T. and sulphur is not sprayed on Indian or Asiatic cotton as sulphur scorches these varieties severely. This mixture can be safely sprayed on American varieties which are also prone to jassid attack. A combined 0.2 per cent spray of 50 per cent water dispersible D.D.T. and sulphur (also water dispersible) is very effective against jassid attack. A cheaper and equally effective mixture consists of 0.01 per cent to 0.02 per cent parathion. Spray of 0.057 kg. to 0.113 kg (two ounces to four ounces) of endrin is also resorted to.

Aphids Gossypii, Glover.

Aphids (*Aphids gossypii, Glover*) is another pest of cotton. The nymphs and adults of this pest suck the cell sap from the leaves due to which leaves turn yellowish and dry. It has been found that a spray of nicotine sulphate at the rate of 0.453 kg. (one pound) in 363.68 Litres (80 gallons) of water mixed with 2.268 kg. (five pounds) of soap is quite effective. A spray of pyrethrum extract in the proportion of one part in 1,000 parts of water also gives satisfactory result. The method of spraying the crop with fish oil rosin soap at the rate of 0.227 kg. (eight ounces) in 18.18 Litres (four gallons) of water is also resorted to. A hectare of land can be sprayed with 909.19 to 1136.49 Litres (200 to 252 gallons) of this spray.

Of Chillis.
Thrips and Mites.

Thrips and mites are the pests of chillis. These pests suck the cell sap due to which the leaves get badly curled. This symptom is locally known as *Chanda Murda* disease. Thrips and mites are considered major pests since they cause damage to the extent of about 25 per cent.

Spraying the crop with two per cent Benzene Hexachloride with sulphur (wettable) is found to give very effective control.

Of Citrus Fruits.
Indarbela quadrinota.

Citrus shoot and bark borer known as *Indarbela quadrinota* causes damage to guava citrus, pomegranate, mango and casuarina. The bark and stems of these host plants are bored by the freshly hatched larvae. As a result of this, the trees put on a sickly appearance and ultimately wither. Presence of this pest can be readily detected by the appearance of frass covered areas on the bark.

Injecting the borer solution containing two parts of carbon-di-sulphide with one part each of chloroform and creosote helps to control the larvae of the borer. However, due care has to be taken to scrape off gallaries and webbings and to ascertain the live burrows before injecting the solution.

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PESTS.

Of Citrus Fruits.

Othreis sp.

Fruit-sucking moth known as *othreis* sp. is another important pest of citrus fruits. Moths generally puncture rinds of all varieties of citrus. However, in this region it particularly causes serious damage to grapes and sweet-oranges. The moths cause direct damage to citrus fruits. Part of the fruit on which the moths feed themselves is exposed to bacterial attack which causes the fruit to rot early.

This pest is very difficult to control. Insecticides do not help control the adults of moths. Therefore, bagging of fruits is at present the only reliable method of control. Moths are also attracted to fermented poison baits and to torch light. They are thus detected and killed. The damage caused by the pest can be reduced by removing the hosts of caterpillars.

Citrus psylla.

In addition to the pests of citrus fruits described so far. recently the outbreak of the pest citrus psylla (*Diaphornia citria*) has been recorded in this region. Eggs are laid inside the folded leaves of the buds, in leaf axils or similar other suitable places on the tender parts of plants. Both the nymphs and adults suck the juice from the tender leaves and buds. When the pest is severe, it results in non-setting of the fruit. It causes damage to fruit of "*Mrig Bahar*" between July and August and to "*Ambia Bahar*" between January and March. The estimated damage is placed at 15 per cent.

Tobacco decoction, resin compound or crude oil emulsion help control the pest. Cultural methods to increase the vigour of the plants should also be practised since they help ward off the damage.

In addition to damage done by pests, various diseases of crops also inflict considerable damage. The following account briefly enumerates the various diseases of crops.

DISEASES.

Of Cereals.

Kani or Danekani.

Spacelotheca Sorghi is a grain smut of jowar, locally known as *kani* or *danekani*. It is a seed borne sporadic disease. When the attack is mild, it causes damage to the extent of two to five per cent. When it is severe, the extent of damage is of the order of 20 to 25 per cent. This disease cannot be detected until the ear-heads come out. Normal grains are not formed in the diseased ear-heads. On the contrary. black masses known as 'sori' are formed in place of grains. Sori comprises black powder which consists of millions of spores of the fungus. Threshing together of diseased and healthy ear-heads provides the source of infection. It attacks the *kharif* jowar between September and November and *rabi* jowar between December and February. At present, the disease is controlled by treating the seed with 200-300 mesh fine sulphur at the rate of 0.028 kg. (one ounce) of sulphur to 6.804 kg. (15 lbs.) of seed.

Kajali.

Spacelotheca cruenta is a loose smut of jowar, locally known as *kajali*. It is a seed borne disease of jowar prevalent in Amravati. The symptoms of *kajali* are pretty nearly the same as those of *kani* or *danekani*, with the difference that the wall of

DISEASES.
Of Cereals.
Kajali.

sorus gets ruptured and a black mass of powder is exposed which gives a blackish appearance to the ear-heads. It is of seasonal occurrence. It affects *kharif* jowar between September and November and *rabi* jowar from December to February. Its mild attack causes damage varying from two per cent to five per cent and severe attack causes damage to the order of 20 to 25 per cent. The diseased and healthy ear-heads get mixed up on the threshing-yard which spreads the infection. Removal and destruction of affected ear-heads helps to check the disease to some extent. Another method of control is to treat the seed with 200-300 mesh fine sulphur at the rate of 0.028 kg. (one ounce) of sulphur to 6.804 kg. (15 lbs.) of seed.

Chikta.

Spacelia sorghi is a sugary disease of jowar, locally known as *chikta*. It is an air borne disease disseminated by aphids. The disease is detected when sugary secretions are noticed, oozing out from the affected ovaries. The drops of this oozing secretion which fall on the leaves are sticky. Hence the disease is named *chikta*. The disease affects jowar crop at any time during the period of its growth. It also causes reduction in yield to the extent of five per cent. The disease is brought under check by controlling aphids. through the use of insecticides.

Of Bajra.
Ergot.

Ergot (*Claviccp microcephala*) is a disease of bajra. So far, this disease has been of rare occurrence and as such the extent of damage caused has been negligible. It is a seed borne and a soil borne disease affecting the crop between September and November. Sclerotal bodies mixed with seed and soil act as source of infection. The disease is detected when sugary secretion from infected flowers in ear-heads is followed by dark black elongated sclerotal bodies in place of grains. The following steps are taken to control the disease:—

1. Procuring seed from disease-free areas.
2. Steeping the grain in 20 per cent salt solution and removing sclerotal bodies and burning them. The steeped grain is washed twice or thrice with water to remove the trace of salt and finally dried.
3. Following the system of crop rotation which helps to check the outbreak of the disease.

Tambera, Haldya or Gerwa.

Puccinia graminis tritici, locally known as *tambera, haldya* or *gerwa*, is a rust disease of wheat. It is by far the most destructive disease of wheat and causes damage to the tune of 60 per cent to 75 per cent. It is an air borne disease. The stem, leaves, leafsheats and awns, etc., manifest in the early part of the season, reddish brown elongated linear eruptive spots known as pustules. When rubbed, brownish red powder smears the thumb. It contains spores called uredo spores. Later in the season, the endhophytic myceliun gives second type of black coloured sori or black pustules at the same erupted spots or side by side. The black pustules contain blackish powder consisting of spores called teleuto spores, which means last spores.

CHAPTER 4. Agriculture and Irrigation. DISEASES. Of Cereals. *Tambera, Haldya or Gerwa.*

As the name signifies, teleuto stage appears at maturity of the crop. The disease is also known as black stem rust on account of the black colour of the powder. The pest is active during November and February. Infection spreads through spores carried by wind and rain.

The chief measure for controlling this disease consists in growing disease resistant varieties like Kenphad 25, MHD-345, KCN and Hybrid 65 for irrigated crop and selection 59 and 125 for dry crop.

Kani or Kajali.

Ustilago tritici locally known as *kani* or *kajali* is a loose smut of wheat. It is a seed borne disease confined to the wheat crop of the district. The damage caused usually varies between four per cent and six per cent. The disease manifests itself when the ear-heads turn blackish. Every part of the ear-head except the rachis and awns gets affected and loose blackish powder is formed in place of grains. This blackish powder consists of the spores of the fungus. The infected seeds and the black mass of powder are blown by the wind to adjacent fields when the crop is in flowering stage. This spreads infection. Inasmuch as the disease is seed borne, dressing seed with fungicides is ineffective. Hence, a special method is evolved to sterilise the seed before sowing.

Of Pulses. *Mar.*

Fusarium oxysporum, locally known as *mar* is the wild disease of *tur*. Its attack is generally of a mild nature, the extent of loss in yield being one to two per cent. The disease is soil borne. Affected plants appear sickly, their leaves drop down and they ultimately wither and die. If roots of affected plants are split open, they exhibit brown discoloration of vascular tissue. The disease is of seasonal occurrence and may break out any time during the growth of the crop.

The method of controlling the disease is to grow wilt resistant varieties such as C-11, C-28 and C-36.

Of Groundnut. *Tikka.*

Tikka (*Cercospora arachidicola, Cercospora personata*) is an air borne disease of groundnut. Usually it affects the crop between July and September, though it affects late varieties even up to October. The disease appears when the crop is one or two months old. Conspicuous purple brown, round spots appear on leaves. Gradually, these increase in size and become blackish with a yellow halo around them. These give an appearance of *tikka* on leaves. Hence the name of the disease. In case of *cercospora personata*, spots are round and small in size whereas in case of *cercospora arachidicola* spots are larger in size and severe in intensity.

Infected plant debris provides the source of infection. Affected leaves shed and shedding becomes the striking feature of disease. The intensity of this disease can be reduced by spraying Bordeaux mixture (in the proportion of 5:5:50) thrice during the growth of the crop. The first spraying is given five to six weeks after planting. The second and the third ones follow at an interval of three or four weeks. Care should be

taken to spray both sides of the foliage. The disease can also be controlled by dusting the crop with 200-300 mesh-fine sulphur. Dusting should be done early in the morning or late in the evening and towards the windward side. The cost of dusting or spraying the crop is estimated to be around Rs. 62 per hectare (Rs. 25 per acre).

Of Cotton. *Kawadi.*

Kawadi, the *anthracnose* is a seed borne disease of cotton caused by a fungus parasite. Infected seeds and plant debris provide the source of infection. The disease manifests itself as 'seedling-rot', 'collar-rot' and damping off in the seeding stage of the crop and as boll rot when the crop starts bearing. In the latter case, it results in developing short, immature, weak and disculoured lint.

The control measures include destroying the affected debris, sowing healthy seeds and treating the seed with one per cent organo mercurial compound at the rate of 0.057 kg (two ounces) for 6.804 kg (15 lbs.) of seed.

Dahiva or Dahya.

Remularia aresla, locally known as *dahiya* or *dahya* is gray mildew of cotton. When it assumes serious proportions, it causes damage to the tune of 50 per cent or more. The disease manifests itself when small grayish white spots first appear on lower leaves. Gradually, these spots grow in size and coalesce giving whitish appearance to the entire leaf. When the attack is severe, white spots appear on both the sides of leaves resulting into defoliation of the plant. The disease generally appears in the last week of August and continues till November. The spores of the fungus are propagated by wind from diseased to healthy crops. Prophylactic dusting of 200-300 mesh fine sulphur at the rate of 16.783 kg.—22.68 kg. (15-20 lbs.) per hectare before the appearance of the disease in August helps to prevent the disease. If found necessary, another dusting could be done in the month of October.

Karpa.

Karpa (*Xanthamonas malvacearum*), the blackarm or angular leaf spot is a miner disease of cotton which causes damage to the extent of two to five per cent. The disease first appears as small water-soaked areas on leaves which are angular in shape. These spots later coalesce involving greater part of the leaf. The stem and bolls also get affected. The disease extends to the edges of mid and lateral veins when it is known as blackarm. Mature bolls when attacked open prematurely and the lint from such bolls bears yellow stains. Such lint fetches low market value. The American cotton varieties are more susceptible to its attack than *deshi* varieties. This disease affects dry cotton between July and December and irrigated cotton from July to March. Primary infection on seedlings occurs through bacteria carried in the fuzz on the seed but the secondary source of infection is through splashing rain drops carried by the wind.

Seed borne infection can be controlled by seed disinfection through fungicides but the secondary infection cannot be controlled by any direct method. Breeding for resistance is, therefore, the only practicable method.

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DISEASES.

Of Grapes.

Bhuri.

Uncinula necator is a powdery mildew of grapes. It is an air borne disease locally known as *Bhuri*. It affects grapes of all varieties and when its attack is severe, it causes loss to the tune of 10 per cent to 15 per cent. The disease appears in the form of whitish patches on both the sides of leaves. These patches gradually grow in size covering a maximum part of the lamina which gives whitish green appearance. When the attack is severe, withering and shedding of leaves take place; patches also appear on shoots near the base which turns black. Affected blossoms fail to set in fruit. Young berries drop when affected in the early stage of their growth. They crack when affected in the advanced stage. The disease normally occurs between November and January. The spores are carried by wind from a diseased to a healthy crop which provides the source of infection.

The disease can be effectively controlled by giving three dustings of 200-300 mesh fine sulphur in the third week of November, December and January.

Kevada.

Plasmopara viticola is a downy mildew of grapes. It is locally known as *Kevada* and affects all varieties of grapes. The disease manifests itself in the form of yellow oily spots appearing on the upper surface of leaves. There is simultaneous downy growth on the undersurface. These symptoms become conspicuous under humid conditions. Later on the oily spots turn brown, tissues dry up and become brittle and the leaves are shed. Water soaked spongy spots develop on shoots, petioles and tendrills, which later on turn yellow and finally become brown in colour. Owing to early attack the blossoms get blighted and berries drop down exhibiting dried up condition in case of an advance attack. The disease occurs between June and August.

Spraying Bordeaux mixture in the third week of May and October and in the last week of July and October helps to control the disease.

TENURES

Short History.*

The system of land tenure in the past permitted a person to own land so long as he paid the customary revenue charges. It, however, underwent changes with the course of political events during the different reigns.

At the dawn of this century the ordinary tenure was the *ryotwari* tenure, and all land paying revenue to government under that system was known as *khalsa* land. The State was recognised as the superior landlord, and the settlement was made directly with the cultivator himself and not through middle men. Subject to certain restrictions, the occupant was the absolute proprietor of his holding so long as he paid the assessment. Non-payment of assessment rendered the right of occupancy liable to forfeiture. The occupant was free to make any improvement he liked on the land. But he could not apply

*The historical account is based on chapter VIII of the Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, 1911.

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Short History.

the land to any other purpose than that for which it was granted. The *khatedar,* registered and recognised occupant of the land, was primarily responsible for payment of the land revenue. He could lease the land to any tenant.

Out of 1,640 villages in the plain tahsils, 1,615 were settled on the *ryotwari* tenure, and were known as *Khalsa* villages. The total area of these villages in 1906-07 was returned as 7,97,229.135 hectares (19,68,467 acres).

The land revenue administration and system of tenure in Melghat tahsil was different. It was described as a *ryotwari* system with many of the evils of other systems and few of its own advantages. The Government though nominally dealing with the *ryots,* left them really unprotected and exacted revenue from *patels* through *patwaris.* The *patel* was thus a *malguzar* with none of the advantages of the position and the cultivator a tenant of the State with few of the advantages of that position*.

Another important system of tenure in this district was the *jagir* system which was prevalent in 19 villages. The *jagir* was originally a mere assignment of the revenue of a particular territory for military services rendered to the Government and the maintenance of peace and order by the *jagirdar* in the territory so assigned. In latter times the grant was occasionally made to civil officers for the maintenance of status and dignity in consonance with the office held. Though the grants were not hereditary, some of the powerful beneficiaries acquired hereditary rights for these grants.

There was also the *palampat* tenure. Under this tenure the villages were made over at a fixed rent for a number of years. The Deshmukhs and Deshpandes were in control of the villages. The system was modified in the course of time, and the older tenants in *palampat* villages were given protection under Berar Land Revenue Code in the same manner as in *jagir* villages.

The *inam* tenure was also prevalent in a few *Khalsa* villages. Under the *inam* tenure plots of land in *khalsa* villages were held by the recipients, wholly or partially rent-free. They were either service *inams* or personal grants.

Existing Tenures.

The *ryotwari* system is the most important system of tenure in the district. The other systems of tenure resembling the *malguzari* system have since been abolished by the progressive land legislation during recent years.

Under the *ryotwari* tenure the land revenue is fixed not upon an estate as a whole or on a village as a whole but on individual survey numbers or sub-divisions thereof. The rates of land revenue are fixed in accordance with the quality of the survey number, average rainfall, kind of crops grown, water resources and location.

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, 1911.

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Existing Tenures.

Of the other tenures, such as, political *inams*, personal *inams*, service *inams* and *jagirs*, only the service *inams* remained in existence. These were mainly vestiges of the British regime. Being incompatible with the progressive land legislation they were abolished in the post independence period. Service *inams* are holdings of land granted to certain persons for performance of particular services to the Government or to the community. The holders of such *inams* are village servants useful to the community such as *jagalyas*, *nhavis*, *sutars*, *kumbhars*, *mochis*, etc.

TENANCY.

Prior to the enforcement of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Act, 1958, the relations between the landlord and the tenant were governed by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and the Berar Regulation of Agricultural Leases Act of 1951. Under this Act the tenants were not entitled to the right of purchasing the land held by them as lessee, nor had they the pre-emption right of purchasing the land held by them as lessee when the landlord intended to sell the land. It was, however, provided that (i) no lease-deed would be for a period of less than five years, (ii) the protected lessee had no right to transfer his occupancy rights to any one except to the owner, and (iii) the landlord as also the tenant had a right to get the lease-money fixed by Government. These regulations were further amended. Under the amended regulations it was provided that the lessee could be declared as a protected tenant if the owner of the leased land was not a woman or a disabled person, and also that the tenant could be declared as a protected tenant if he had furnished the required information about his rights to the land by 1st February 1954. In the amendment it was also provided that the landlord had no right to oust the tenant. The protection to the tenants, however, did not apply to the tenants cultivating over 20.250 hectares (50 acres) of land, and the landlord had no right to oust a tenant unless a specific permission to the effect was obtained from Revenue Officers. The tenant was entitled to reclaim the land within a year of such ousting.

The Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Act, 1958, which is the prevailing tenancy Act, came into force from 30th December 1958. This Act confers on all tenants the rights of purchasing the land from the owner. All the privileges of a protected tenant are granted to the ordinary tenants as well. The present enactment has unified the provisions of the old enactments in force, and at the same time aims at finally defining the rights of the tenants. It provides for tenancy rights by succession and regulates the sale of agricultural land exceeding two-third of the ceiling area as determined under the Maharashtra Agricultural Lands (Ceiling on Holdings) Act, 1961, to non-agriculturists or even to agriculturists holding land as tenants. Widows, minors, disabled persons, persons under preventive detention and public trusts have been granted protection under the new Act.

TENANCY.

The new Act has made considerable changes in the provisions relating to rent, termination of tenancy, inheritance of tenancy rights, etc., of the prior enactment. It also contains provisions in regard to family holdings, ceiling on holding and compulsory purchase of land by tenants subject to certain conditions and exceptions. It has provided that the landlord can take over management of the lands which are not efficiently cultivated or which are left fallow for two or more consecutive seasons. A landlord has been given the right of resumption under the following conditions:—

(i) He was to give the necessary notice of termination of tenancy on or before 15th February 1961, and to apply for possession of land on or before 31st March 1961.

(2) Landlords whose total holding did not exceed one family holding were given a special right to terminate tenancies created by them not earlier than April 1957. The last date for application was 26th January 1962.

(3) Small holders, *viz*., landlords whose holding did not exceed one-third of the family holding on 15th February 1961 and who earned their livelihood from agricultural pursuits, were given a right to take back their land from the tenant by giving a written notice within one year from the date of enforcement of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands (Vidarbha Region and Kutch Area) Amendment Act of 1961. The application for possession was to be made before 1st April 1963.

The following statement gives the statistics regarding the working of the Tenancy Act.

(Position as on 1st August 1963).

Number of cases filed .	32,893
Number of cases disposed of ..	27,008
Number of cases pending .	7,367
Number of cases decided in favour of tenants.	11,782
Number of cases decided in favour of landlords	7,859

RURAL WAGES.
Casual Labour.

Cultivators in Amravati district employ casual labourers only when there is pressure of farm work such as collecting stubbles, sowing, weeding, harvesting, etc. It is reported that there exists a general scarcity of agricultural labour in the district as a whole but particularly near about Morshi, Warud and Amravati towns. In the district as a whole, the labourers are generally paid in cash. However, in a few cases, payment is made in kind also. Labourers get their wages for the week on bazar day so that they can purchase their requirements of food, clothing, etc.

The method of obtaining and employing casual labour in Amravati district is peculiar. Those cultivators who want to engage labour on their farms have to go to the labour market

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RURAL WAGES.

Casual Labour.

early in the morning wherefrom they get the required hands. The labourers gather every morning in the labour market and after the daily wage rate is declared they are distributed by their gang leaders. This system of labour market is prevalent at more than 50 per cent of the places in the district. What is more, it prevails also in small villages. The following table reveals the rates of wages paid to casual labour employed throughout the district.

TABLE No. 27

WAGES OF CASUAL LABOUR*, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

		Pre-war 1938-39	Post-war 1948-49	1959-60
Male ..	Cash ..	0·31 to 0·37	0·62 to 0·75	1·25 to 2·50
	Kind ..	3·629 Kg. (8 lbs.) jowar.	3·629 Kg. (8 lbs.) jowar.	3·629 Kg. (8 lbs.) jowar.
Female	Cash .	0·10 to 0·12	0·37 to 0·50	0·75
	Kind ..	2·721 Kg. (6 lbs.) jowar.	2·721 Kg. (6 lbs.) jowar.	1·814 Kg. (4 lbs.) jowar.
Child ..	Cash ..	0·06	0·25	0·37
	Kind ..	1·814 Kg. (4 lbs.) jowar.	1·814 Kg. (4 lbs.) jowar.	0·907 Kg. (2 lbs.) jowar.

It will be seen that the wage rate for a male labourer varied between Rs. 1.25 and Rs. 2.50 per day. The former is the lowest rate while the latter is the highest wage rate paid during busy agricultural season near Warud, Jarud and Morshi towns where irrigated crops are grown by resorting to intensive farming methods. Women labourers are usually paid at half the wage rate of men labourers. Thus they receive between 62 paise and 75 paise per day. So far as wages are concerned, practically no distinction is made between woman labour and child labour. However, it may be noted that the practice of employing child labour is not in vogue. Few cultivators, particularly in some parts of Melghat taluka pay casual labourers in kind. Thus a man worker receives 3.629--4.536 kg. (8-10 lbs.) of grain and a woman labourer 1.814--2.721 kg. (4-6 lbs.) of grains. During and after the Second World War, money wages are reported to have risen nearly 4 times the pre-war rate in almost all the talukas. But the real wages have not undergone any upward change as the prices of foodgrains have also gone up. In the case of woman and child labour, the quantity of grain given as payment in kind actually decreased from 2.721 kg. (6 lbs.) to 1.814 kg. (4 lbs.) and 1.814 kg. (4 lbs.) to 0.907 kg. (2 lbs.) respectively between 1948-49 and 1959-60.

*They were not provided with any other facility such as meals clothing, tobacco for chewing, smoking, etc., in addition to their wages.

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RURAL WAGES.

Wages according to operation.

Wages paid to casual labour employed on farms vary according to the nature of agricultural operations. Wages are determined on daily basis and are usually paid in cash. Men labourers are usually paid higher wages than women labourers or child labour. Similarly, labourers performing those operations which involve heavy and skilled manual work are paid higher wages. Thus the worker driving *tiffan* for sowing is paid Rs. 5 per day. Harvesting and threshing also require a certain amount of skill and these operations have to be performed within the limited time. This leads to greater demand for the available labour force. However, with a view to getting the work done rapidly, labour is employed on contract basis throughout the district. For instance, women and children are generally employed for picking cotton. They are paid wages on the basis of the quantity of *kapus* picked during the day. This rate varies between Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 2 per maund of 28 seers of *kapas* collected. Similarly groundnut is also harvested on contract system. The workers are paid at the rate of 37 paise to 50 paise for the collection of a tinful of pods; liquid capacity of the tin being 18.18 litres (4 gallons). Jowar crop is also harvested on contract basis. Many a time operations like harvesting and threshing of jowar and tying bundles of *kadbi* are entrusted to labour. They are paid Rs. 37 to Rs. 50 per hectare (Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per acre) on contract basis. If these operations are performed on daily wage rate basis, labourer gets Rs. 1-50 for harvesting. These rates are subject to variation depending upon the time within which these operations are to be completed. The labourers also prefer contract system as it enables them to put in more work, earn higher average daily wages and finish the work rapidly. Around Warud, Jarud and Morshi towns, orange cultivation is practised on a large scale and labourers are paid higher wages. The private nursery owners raise large nurseries and a labourer performing budding operation is paid Rs 2.50 per tree.

Annual Servants or *Saldars*.

Saldars are annual servants employed by those cultivators who can provide continuous and regular employment throughout the year either because they have large holdings or because they undertake intensive farming. A *saldar* is available for work throughout the day and night and usually does all type of farm-work. The contract with a *saldar* holds good for one year. He is offered a pair of *dhoti*, a shirt, a *dupatta* and a cap on the *Pola* day. The payment is usually made in instalments. The payment to a *saldar* varies between Rs. 300 and Rs. 600 per annum depending upon the nature of work on the farm, the type of farming followed by the cultivator and the skill and ability of the *saldar* himself. In areas around Warud and Jarud towns where intensive farming is practised, the prevailing wage rate of a *saldar* is between Rs. 500 and Rs 600 per year. Young boys between 12 and 16 years of age are also employed as *saldars* and are paid half the wages.

Balutedars.

Balutedars are village artisans who are connected with the various agricultural operations. The main feature of this

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RURAL WAGES.

Balutedars.

system is that they are given a fixed payment in kind for all the work they do during the year. The *baluta* system is gradually disappearing. Now this system prevails only on the farms of big hereditary cultivators. *Balutedars* work only on the farms of big cultivators and do not enter into fresh *baluta* contracts with anybody. As a result, the tendency to get the services of village artisans in exchange for cash payment is gaining ground. The important village artisans include a carpenter (*barhai*), a blacksmith (*khati*), a cobbler (*chambhar*) and a barber (*mhali*). The agricultural commodities given to the *balutedar* by way of wages generally include jowar, wheat, grain and other pulses. *Baluta* (payment in kind) is paid at the time of harvest. The payment by the cultivator is linked to the pair or pairs of bullocks he owns. For instance, a carpenter repairing farm implements gets about 20 *paylies* or 36.288 kg. (80 lbs.) of jowar for every pair of bullocks owned by the cultivator.

FAMINES AND FLOODS.

Early Famines.

The early famine history of Amravati can be traced from various references to famines in Berar, which may be taken to include this district. In the reign of Muhammad Shah Bahmani (1378—1397), Berar, in common with the rest of the Deccan, was devastated by a terrible famine, and the orphanage established by that sovereign at Ellichpur (Achalpur) is one of the earliest recorded attempts to mitigate such a disaster. It is highly improbable that the province escaped the famine of 1417, which affected the greater part of the Deccan. Again in 1472-73, Malwa and the Deccan including Berar were severely affected by a famine which lasted for two years and caused wholesale emigration to Bengal and Gujarat. In 1630-31, there was a severe famine throughout Gujarat, Khandesh, Berar and Daulatabad. It was reported that the flesh of dogs was sold by butchers as goats' flesh, crushed bones of the dead were mingled with the flour exposed for sale, and parents devoured their children. The memories of the famine of 1803 lingered for 50 years afterward and Berar did not escape the famine of 1833 which caused considerable distress. In the great famine of 1839, the distress was very great and no measures of relief were attempted by the local government. The extensive emigration which took place at this period, must have been a powerful factor in reducing the district to its poor conditions at the time of the Assignment in 1853. In 1845 there was distress caused by the high price of jowar, which rose from Rs. 5 to Rs. 20 a *khandi*, and the enraged populace of Amravati murdered one Dhanraj Sahu, a wealthy trader, who had bought up large quantities of rice with a view to obtaining large profits. In 1853 Amravati with the rest of Berar came under the British rule and there ensued a period of prosperity only broken by the prevalence of high prices in 1878 and 1879. So remote did the idea of famine seem in 1893 that the Commissioner felt justified in reporting that a programme of relief works was not required for Berar. This optimistic attitude was to receive a rude shock during the next few years.

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FAMINES AND FLOODS.

Famine in the plain talukas 1896-97.

The season of 1895-96 had been one of scanty rainfall, only 24 inches 8 cents being recorded, but a bumper crop of cotton was reaped and except for the deficiency in the water-supply the condition of the people up to June 1896 was quite satisfactory. The rains of 1896 opened very favourably and by the beginning of August everything pointed to a bumper crop of cotton and jowar. But suddenly and inexplicably the rains ceased about the 25th August and beyond a fall of 3 inches in November there was no appreciable rainfall again till June 1897. The result of the sudden cessation of the rains was that the *rabi* crop, owing to the lack of moisture, was almost a total failure. But cotton and jowar, the important crops of this district, showed fair results, a rough estimate putting them at half the normal crop. Unfortunately, the general failure of the monsoon throughout India affected Berar by causing a sudden rise of prices, which paralysed local trade for the time being. Jowar rose from 19 seers for a rupee to 12 seers in October 1896 and varied from 10 to 7 seers from November 1896 to October 1897. Wheat rose from 13 seers to 8 seers in October 1896 and remained at about 7 seers from November 1896 to October 1897. The Bombay Famine Code was therefore applied, and a programme of relief works was prepared. A sum of Rs. 33,000 was spent on relief works which consisted principally of stone breaking, road-making and tank repairs. However, the percentage of persons thus relieved to the total population was 0.9 only. Gratuitous relief was mainly given by means of poor-houses and relief-centres. Ten poor-houses were maintained with a daily average attendance of 2,270 and the total expenditure in connection with them was Rs. 16,238. Weekly doles were also given to a number of old and infirm persons; for not only did they have to pay more for their food, but their wages fell considerably due to the influx of workers from the neighbouring provinces. The distress among the weavers of Ellichpur and Anjangaon was met in this way. The opening of cheap grain shops also afforded relief to a number of people. The measures of Government were largely supplemented by the efforts of private charity, which was especially active in this district. A poor-house was maintained at Amravati by private subscriptions at a cost of over Rs 8,000. A sum of Rs. 35,000 was also raised in the district in connection with the Indian Charitable Relief Fund, and from the charitable funds of all kinds a sum of Rs. 76,000 was spent. The famine operations were complicated by a sudden inrush of paupers from the Central Provinces in July and August 1897. Many of these arrived in an emaciated condition, and there was a considerable mortality from starvation among them, though every effort was made by means of poor-houses and village relief to meet the difficulty. The death-rate of the district compared favourably with that of the previous year till April 1897, when it began to rise and in August and September it reached its highest monthly average of 8 per mille. Cholera prevailed in April and May and in the rains dysentery and diarrhoea of a severe type were common. The death-rate in the district in 1897 was 59.4 per mille. The cultivators were not

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Famine in the plain talukas 1896-97.

severely affected by the distress and the high prices obtained by them for their crops enabled them to pay the land revenue with ease, 99 per cent. of the demand being paid. The availability of a large number of labourers gave them the opportunity of making many cheap improvements in their land. The class that suffered most from the high prices was the class of agricultural labourers, who formed 30 per cent. of the population.

1899-1900.

The effect of four years of deficient rainfall began to be felt on the water-supply, and the scarcity of drinking water caused much inconvenience and distress. The season of 1899-1900 opened fairly well in June, a rainfall of 3.84" being recorded; but July and August recorded a rainfall of 75.44 mm., and 62.48 mm. (2.97 and 2.46 inches) only. The menace was aggravated when the rains ceased altogether in the third week of September. The result was a complete failure of both the *kharif* and *rabi* crops. The normal outturn of the principal food crops, jowar and wheat, for the preceding ten years, exclusive of 1896-97, had been about 1306.340 q. (35 lakhs of maunds); the actual outturn of 1899-1900 was about 5225.36 q. (14,000 maunds). The loss represented by this difference was estimated to have been about 164 lakhs of rupees. At the end of September, the price of the staple foodgrain, jowar, went up to famine point, selling at 13 to 15 seers a rupee. It rose in October to 9¼ seers and fluctuated between 11 and 8½ seers from November 1899 to May 1900, when there was a further rise, and the highest price reached was 7½ seers in July 1900. From August 1900 the price began to fall again but it did not reach the normal till some months later. But for the large imports of Bengal and Rangoon rice at the beginning of the famine, the price would have risen still further.

In November (1899) large relief works under the charge of the Public Works Department were undertaken. These works mainly consisted of stone metal collections, construction of new roads and repairs to existing roads, carriage of stone metal from quarries to roadside, construction of new tanks and cleaning of old tanks. The number of workers engaged varied from 6,000 to 7,000 during the quarter ending November 1899; by April the number reached 46,000, and in June the panic caused by the holding off of the rains sent up the number to 48,000. In July there was a rapid decrease in this figure and by the end of September there were only 1,112 people on the works. The total expenditure on the works was nearly 11 lakhs of rupees, whereas their cost at normal rates would have been only 4½ lakhs.

Besides these relief works, the Government launched a policy of opening village works with a view to providing temporary employment to people near their homes until they could find suitable work on the field. The work done consisted chiefly of improvement to village sites and local roads, and the collection of *kankar* (limestone nodules) for road repairs. The maximum number of workers on relief work was 25,000 in July 1900. The expenditure on these works amounted to Rs. 1,04,608.

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Special measures were also taken for the relief of the weaving community in the Ellichpur tahsil. Advances were made to middlemen, who were supposed to employ only distressed weavers and the cloth thus produced was purchased by Government from the middlemen.

Gratuitous relief was given to the poorer sections of the community under three heads:*

(1) relief of non-working children and other dependents of relief workers on large works:

(2) grain doles or cooked food given to persons eligible under the Famine Code; and

(3) relief in poor-houses.

The famine affected the cattle very severely. There was heavy mortality among the cattle due to non-availability of fodder and grass. Many owners of cattle were compelled either to sell their cattle at nominal prices or to send them into the Melghat where fodder was available. Vigorous efforts were made by the Government to save the cattle. But in spite of all the efforts, about 55 per cent of the cattle perished.

Famine in Melghat Tahsil 1896-97.

The famine history of the Melghat, differing as it does in every respect from the rest of the district, requires a separate notice. This tract is populated almost entirely by the aboriginal Korkus and similar tribes, a people of the poorest condition, shy and diffident, living from hand to mouth, with no resources and extremely averse to any work except fitful labour in the forests. The prosperity of the tract depends on three factors in the following order of importance; first, prosperity in Berar and consequently a good demand for Melghat forest produce; secondly, a good crop of cereals locally; and thirdly, a good season for wild fruits. At the close of the rains in 1896 the distress in the plain talukas caused the demand for timber to fall considerably, and the Melghat exporters found their income from this source reduced to one-fourth of the normal. Moreover, the local harvests in the Melghat had been bad for three or four years previously, and in 1895 there had been a partial failure of crops. In 1896 the early cessation of the rains caused a total failure of the crops on the light red shallow soils, which formed the bulk of the cultivated area. There was also a rapid rise in the prices of foodgrains, which by November 1896 were double the normal. Thus at the close of 1896 the Korku, with no stock of grain to draw on and with no market for his forest produce, found himself face to face with starvation. Small bands of them began to appear in the plains searching for work. The situation was, however, retrieved by the Forest Department, in charge of the Melghat region, which in December 1896 took measures to cope with the distress.

Relief measures in the Melghat region differed considerably from other parts of the district due to its peculiar topography and the special character of the aboriginal inhabitants.

*For details refer Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Volume A, 1911.

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Famine in Melghat Tahsil 1896-97.

Provisions under the Famine Code were altered to suit the conditions of the area. Small and scattered works were opened; but the Officers in charge tried to exact a fair day's work from the labourers by moral persuasion and patience. Food for the workers had to be imported from the plains. Most of the relief works consisted of road construction, but in addition wells were deepened, tanks cleaned and roads repaired.

Gratuitous relief was given at about 20 relief centres where foodgrains were distributed. The incapacitated were given doles. In addition, the export of forest produce was encouraged by making liberal concessions. The duty on headloads of firewood was suspended: the rates for small and inferior timber, for bamboos and for charcoal, were reduced, and grazing fees were remitted except in 23 well-off villages. Cheap grain shops were opened at numerous centres.

1899-1900.

The harvest in 1897 was below normal in consequence of the famine of 1896-97. In 1898 the area sown and outturn were generally normal, but a portion of the tract was still suffering from the effects of the famine. In 1899 the rainfall from June to September was only 482.60 mm. (19 inches) or 33 per cent. of the average, and the regular rains stopped at the end of July. The result was a complete failure of the crops. The aboriginal inhabitants were in even a worse position than in 1897, as the distress in the plain talukas was much severer. No field work was available and sales of forest produce practically ceased. In September 1899 relief measures were sanctioned.

The period following the year 1910 saw less frequent occurrence of famines. The distress and suffering which used to be typically acute during the previous famines were also reduced to a considerable extent. This can be attributed to improved means of communications, quicker transport, mobility of labour, diversification of occupational structure and conscious and timely relief measures undertaken by the Government. Voluntary social service institutions and men of public zeal also rendered invaluable service for the amelioration of the famine stricken.

The nature was also merciful. The rains were either fairly adequate or at least not grieviously short. The inadequacy or shortage in rains sometimes was covered by the farmers by irrigation through wells with the help of water pumping sets, whereas a few farmers resorted to horticulture to obviate vagaries of rains.

However, conditions of widespread scarcity prevailed sometimes. They were invariably reflected in the high prices of foodgrains and shortage of drinking water and fodder.

Locusts infected the district in 1957. However, the situation was brought under control by timely measures and by the use of the latest equipment to combat the menace. Compensation was given for the damage caused, by the grant of loans and gratuitous relief to the sufferers.

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Floods.

The incidence of floods has been on an increase since the last decade. Large areas of cultivated land were devastated and eroded by furious floods. Daryapur tahsil, where the incidence of damage due to floods was considerable, experienced heavy floods in 1930-31, 1940-41, 1944-45, 1950-51, 1956-57 and 1959-60. These floods caused damage to cultivated land, houses and cattle. In 1957, the entire district suffered considerably due to floods.

The extent of damage in Amravati tahsil amounted to Rs. 55,050. Cultivated land measuring 854.955 hectares (2,111 acres) in Chandur tahsil and 453.600 hectares (1,120 acres) in Daryapur tahsil was submerged in flood waters. Morshi tahsil lost two human lives. The damage to land and property amounted to Rs. 1,23,000 in Morshi tahsil.

In September 1959, there were heavy rains causing floods which affected 179 villages in the district. Damage was caused to villages along the banks of the Pedhi in Amravati, the Belmandi and the Kholat in Chandur and the Chandrabhaga and the Shahanur in Daryapur tahsils. Houses were washed away and an area of about 7,399.350 hectares (18,270 acres) with standing crops was also completely swept away by floods. Thousands of acres of standing crops were submerged in water for a number of days. The floods not only damaged the existing crops but also eroded the soil and rendered it barren. The estimated damage to crops was to the tune of Rs. 12,86,476. In Daryapur tahsil alone 86 villages were affected, and the loss amounted to Rs. 6,15,680. The damage in Amravati and Chandur tahsils was estimated at Rs. 2,60,818 and Rs. 2,96,700, respectively. The floods, however, did not affect the Melghat and Morshi tahsils.

The following statement gives the damages due to floods in terms of loss of human life cattle, houses, property and agricultural lands in the district in 1959-60, 1961-62 and 1962-63.

Particulars	1959-60	1961-62	1962-63
Human lives lost ..	10	1	2
Heads of cattle lost ..	177	70	..
Villages affected ..	409	108	100
Houses—			
(i) Damaged ..	1,275	562	88
(ii) Destroyed ..	1,718	457	10
Value of loss (other than crops)—			
(i) Public	Rs. 6,92,937	Rs. 2,34,769	Rs. 6,922
(ii) Government ..	Rs. 9,000	..	..
Crops damaged—			
(i) Area	11,991·645 hec. (29,609)	2,655·990 hec (6,558)	1,918·890 hec. (4,738)
(ii) Value	Rs. 18,74,655	Rs. 1,38,075	Rs. 1,95,160

Figures in brackets are in acres.

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Floods.

To alleviate the distress, speedy measures were taken by public and private bodies and the Government, by opening relief centres, granting loans, subsidies and building materials. Besides tagai loans and subsidies, clothes, food and cash were received from the Government of India and the Prime Minister's Relief Fund for distribution among the distressed. The following statement gives the statistics of relief measures from various sources.

Particulars of relief	1959-60	1961-62
	Rs.	Rs.
Amount of relief including loans—		
Ordinary tagai loans	7,16,307·86	2,39,030·00
Loans under Non-Agricultural Loans Act	27,000·00	9,250·00
Subsidy to the flood stricken	20,050·50	14,700·00
Gratuitous Relief	1,09,095·00	16,619·99
Total ..	8,72,453·36	2,79,599·99
Building materials	56,408·00	60,000·00 (approximately)
Seeds for sowing	65,390·00	N. A.
Clothes, cloth, utensils and milk powder	N. A.	N. A.

A High Level Committee on floods has been studying the pros and cons of the threat of floods and protective measures to be undertaken in the district. All susceptible areas of flood have been clearly demarcated and active steps are being taken to ensure that the *Gaothans* (village sites) are changed to some safer sites free from the incidence of floods. The dangerous rivers and *nalas* are suitably channelised to allow flood waters to pass without being obstructed. New *Gaothans* are provided for the vulnerable villages. The rural housing scheme is being implemented to provide loans for construction of new houses in the flood-stricken villages. Special facilities are made available to the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Backward Class people for their rehabilitation.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

Agronomic research and education are of prime importance in agricultural economy. The development of agriculture under a planned economy has made research one of the fundamentals of agricultural planning. Intensive cultivation, which is an integral part of the strategy of agricultural planning, depends upon research and propaganda in respect of scientific methods of cultivation, crop rotation, and protection of crops from pests and diseases. Considerable progress has been made in the field of agricultural research and education. The agricultural class is receiving the benefits of research and education conducted by Government.

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AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

The Government conducts research farm stations at Achalpur and Amravati. The Achalpur farm, established in 1927, is by far the oldest farm commanding an area of 121.905 hectares (301 acres). The Amravati farm, which was established in 1954-55, has a total area of 163.620 hectares (404 acres). Various agronomical and other experiments are carried out on these farms. Research on agronomic aspects is done in case of crops like cotton, groundnut, jowar, tobacco and chilli Suitability of new varieties of the crops evolved by the Department of Agriculture is tried on these farms before they are released for distribution to the farmers.

A breeding centre of American cotton works at Achalpur. An improved variety, *viz.*, Buri 107, is evolved from the parent variety. Further reselection from Buri 107 was developed and a still improved strain of Buri 0394 was released from this centre. Recently, a further selection from 0394 was successfully done and an improved strain known as Buri 147 was released for the farmers. This variety has the quality of being long staple and ginning higher percentage. Its yield is also higher. Besides the research work, nucleus seed of improved varieties of different crops is also supplied to the farmers from these farms.

Seed multiplication.

With a view to providing better seeds to farmers in the district and to covering the entire area under improved varieties, the government has established nine taluka seed multiplication farms in the district. They are at Achalpur, Anjangaon, Chandur Bazar, Yeral, Dhanora, Teosa, Walgaon, Kusumkol and Chandur Railway. Seed multiplication work is confined mainly to crops like cotton jowar, groundnut and wheat The nucleus seed produced at the research centre is multiplied on these farms and is then released to the cultivators.

Table No. 28 gives statistics of production of seeds at Government farms in the district.

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AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

Seed multiplication.

TABLE No. 28

STATEMENT SHOWING PRODUCTION OF SEEDS ON GOVERNMENT FARMS AND TALUKA SEED FARMS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT DURING 1958-59.*

(Figures in kilograms)

Name of Farm	Cotton					Groundnut Ak-12-24	Tur	
	Buri-0296	Buri-0394	Buri-147	H-420	Virnar-1973		EB-38	Hyderabad
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1. Government Farm, Achalpur	1,524·778 (3,366)	3,000·672 (6,624)	4,655·934 (10,278)	1,729·992 (3,814)	1,834·650 (4,050)	19,439·589 (42,913)	985·651 (2,173)	1,985·538 (4,384)
2. Government Farm, Amravati	2,399·994 (5,298)	1,847·334 (4,078)	1,962·396 (4.332)	1,983·095 (4,372)	1,148·808 (2,536)	6,552·645 (14.465)	778·360 (1,716)	2,929·285 (6,458)
Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms (total 9 farms).	2,216·076 (4.892)	4,063·410 (8,970)	4,349·706 (9.602)	..	4,675·866 (10,322)	4,913·691 (10,847)	1451·488 (3,200)	528·885 (1,166)
Total ..	6,140 868 (13,556)	8,911·416 (19,672)	10,968·036 (24,212)	3,713·087 (8,186)	7,659·324 (16,908)	30,905·925 (68,225)	3,215·499 (7,089)	5,446·708 (12,008)

*Figures in brackets are in lbs.

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Seed multiplication.

Name of Farm	Wheat		Jowar Saoner and other varieties	Mug Kopergaon	Local	Gram No. 28	Paddy	
	Vijay	Hy65					Nasik	Local
(1)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
Government Farm, Achalpur ..		1,926·156 (4,252)	43,419·449 (95,724)	703·962 (1,554)	526·839 (1,163)	453·591 (1,000)	..	86·183 (190)
Government Farm, Amravati ..	1,532·227 (3,378)	2,653·900 (6,300)	25,571·877 (54 172)	1,419·702 (3,134)	221·970 (490)	80·739 (178)	183·012 (404)	..
Taluka Seed Multiplication Farms (total 9 farms).	1,347·430 (2,975)	3,428·757 (7,569)	16,400·454 (36,157)	208·380 (460)	..	934·395 (2,060)	..	1,039·182 (2,294)
Total ..	2,881·657 (6,353)	8,208·813 (18,121)	84,391·780 (185,053)	2,332·044 (5,148)	748·809 (1,653)	1,463·724 (3,238)	183·012 (404)	1,125·355 (2 484)

*Figures in brackets are in lbs

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AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND EDUCATION.

Soil Conservation.

Agricultural Education.

There is a soil conservation laboratory at Achalpur. Experiments pertaining to soil erosion are carried out at this laboratory. Analysis of soil samples is also made.

Agricultural education was initiated in this district with a view to combining primary education with lessons in agricultural practice. The Vidya Mandir Plots, established with that avowed purpose, have been attached to three primary schools in the district. The plots are situated at Thilore, Wadgaon and Satephal.

The Shivaji Education Society has been doing pioneering work in the field of agricultural as well as rural education. The Shivaji Maratha High School, an institution run by the above Society, has been imparting training in agriculture since 1943. The Shivaji Education Society has been managing a few other institutions, which also provide facilities for agricultural education. These institutions are Janata College, Amravati, Basic Agricultural School, Amravati, Rural Institute, Amravati and a full-fledged College of Agriculture.

The Janata College provides for a two-years' course in agricultural training. The students completing the course of studies in this institution are absorbed in the Agriculture Department as Agriculture Assistants. The Basic Agricultural School conducts a two-year's integrated course for Gram Sevaks (village level workers). The Gram Sevaks are appointed in the national extension blocks after the completion of the course of studies prescribed for them. The Rural Institute also conducts training in rural sciences, agriculture being the most prominent among them. The students trained in this Institute are absorbed in the Agriculture Department.

The Agricultural College started in July 1959 is affiliated to the University of Nagpur. It provides training facilities up to graduation level.

CHAPTER 5 — INDUSTRIES

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

AMRAVATI IS PREDOMINANTLY AN AGRICULTURAL DISTRICT with fertile soil yielding a variety of crops. About 72 per cent of its population depends on agriculture either directly or indirectly. Most of the industries in the district have an agricultural bias involving processing of agricultural produce, *e.g.*, cotton ginning and pressing, dal mills, oil-crushing, etc. Various other industries have, however, been established recently, *viz.*, engineering works, metal works, chemical factories, etc. The establishment of an Industrial Estate at Amravati and the recent proposals for industrial estates at Achalpur and Dhamangaon mark the beginning of an era of industrialisation in the district. In 1907* cotton ginning and pressing ranked first in the district, there being then 88 such units (60 ginning and 28 pressing). Besides the cotton ginning factories, there were four other factories in the district, *viz.*, two oil presses at Amravati, the Berar Match Company at Achalpur and the Berar Manufacturing Company at Badnera (Cotton Textile Mills). The Match Factory, started in 1906, had to face many difficulties and was, therefore, forced to close. The most important manufacture of the district was cotton yarn and cloth produced by the mills at Badnera which were started as early as in 1885. Yarn and all kinds of woven goods, both of Indian and European design and of a durable variety including *dhotis*, *pagris*, *dasotis*, napkins, handkerchiefs and table-cloths were manufactured. The mills steadily increased in prosperity and soon found a ready market for their products in the Central Provinces and Berar and at more distant stations.

The cotton boom during the first triennium after 1921 led to the establishment of a number of cotton ginning and pressing factories in the district.† A cotton spinning and weaving mill, *viz.*, the Vidarbha Mills (Berar) Ltd., was established at Achalpur in 1925. The abolition of the excise duties and the imposition of successive tariffs on foreign yarn and piece goods since 1925 helped the growth of the textile industry. A further impetus was provided by the Swadeshi and boycott movements in 1930-31.

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*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Volume A., 1911, pp. 236—38.

†Census of India, 1921; Central Provinces and Berar, Part I, Vol. XI.

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The bidi industry also received encouragement from the Swadeshi and the boycott movements*. The district was never an important centre for bidi-making. However, by 1931 there were two establishments employing 50 persons or more and three establishments employing less than 50 persons.

After Independence an all-round development of the district is being sought along with other areas of the State under the Five-Year Plans.

Electrification of the district commenced late in twenties of this century. Even then only a small beginning was made. The following figures show the recent development in the power resources of the district:—

	April 1951	March 1961
Electrified towns	2	13
Electrified villages	..	110
Number of houses electrified ..	1,820	10,387
Large-scale industrial units using high tension. ..	1	28
Electric water pumps	21	2,153
Annual consumption (in units) ..	7,00,000	16,80,273
Power in Kilowatts	643	19,085·61

In 1963, electrification was extended to 123 villages of the district and about 3,500 water-pumps were worked on electricity.

The main centre of electricity generation in the district is the Khaparkheda South Thermal Grid. Its present capacity of 60,000 kilowatts will be shortly increased to 90,000 kilowatts. A part of the district will also receive its power supply from the 30,000 kilowatt-power house erected at Paras near Akola. This will provide the necessary power for various industrial units like ginning and pressing, oil mills, looms, etc.

Availability of an efficient transport system is one of the pre-requisites for the development of industry and commerce. The hilly nature of the district, especially its north-eastern portion, prevented rapid progress of railways and roads in the initial stage. The last fifty years have, however, witnessed a development and quickening of transport facilities. Besides the Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta broad gauge line passing through the district, two more railway routes have been opened, *viz.*, the Murtizapur-Achalpur narrow gauge line and the Khandwa-Purna metre gauge line. The latter serves the hilly tract of the district which, so far, was without any substantial communications system. Numerous roadways emanating from Amravati connect this cotton growing centre with various markets in the

*Census of India, 1931; Central Provinces and Berar, Part I—Vol. XII.

district and outside. Amravati is connected to Bombay, Nagpur, Burhanpur, Multai, Betul, Yeotmal, Wardha, etc., by excellent all-weather roads. Besides, a number of major district roads have helped in the creation of a net work of communication lines.

To encourage small industrialists in establishing industrial units, an Industrial Estate was established at Amravati in 1960. Initially it is controlled by the Government and is looked after by the Community Project Officer and the Industries Officer, Amravati. Once the Industrial Estate starts working smoothly, the management will be handed over to a co-operative society. The aim is to undertake the provision of facilities to the small industrial units operating within the estate such as work sheds, water supply, electricity, marketing of products, posts and telegraphs office, etc. A sum of Rs. 10,50,000 has been sanctioned for the implementation of the scheme. So far, 30 sheds have been constructed and allotments made to various small scale establishments in the district.

The industries are granted financial assistance under the State Aid to Industries Act and Rules and under various other schemes. Thus grants to individuals under the said Act amounted to Rs. 15,000 in 1962-63. In the same year the Maharashtra State Financial Corporation granted a loan of Rs. 52,000 to two parties. A Government loan of Rs. 2,00,000 was sanctioned to Messrs. Banarse Plastic Industries, Amravati. Besides, the Zilla Parishad made a loan of Rs. 14,333 under the State Aid to Industries Rules.

Attempts are made to encourage co-operation in the field of industry by propaganda and by organising industrial co-operatives.

These steps have resulted in the opening up of a number of industrial concerns in the district. The district has at present two textile mills, one at Badnera and another at Achalpur, which employ about 2,350 persons. Besides these, at Achalpur there are the following concerns, viz., the Dyeing and Printing Works, the Vishnu Weaving Shed and the Onkar Powerloom Works.

Cotton occupies about 3,24,000 to 3,64,500 hectares of land (8 to 9 lakhs of acres) in the district. Naturally cotton ginning and pressing provide considerable industrial opportunities. At present there are 43 such units consisting of 38 large-scale and five small-scale units registered under the Factories Act. Of these 12 are pressing units, 26 ginning units and five are engaged in both ginning and pressing. Besides, there are four farmers' co-operative cotton ginning and pressing establishments at Pathrot, Karanjgaon, Anjangaon-Surji and Amravati.

Next to cotton, oil-seeds feature as an important cash crop of the district. With about a lakh of acres under oil-seeds, the oil-crushing industry offers good prospects. The district has at present 12 oil mills (nine large-scale and three small-scale).

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The district grows a rich crop of pulses which cover about (1,20,000 acres) 48,600 hectares of land. Among pulses *tur* is important and has a considerable demand, both inside and outside the district. The district has eight dal mills registered under the Factories Act. Of these two are large and six small.

Of the other industrial units in the district could be mentioned the Indian Hume Pipe Company, Ltd., Amravati, producing cement pipes and grates. Besides, there are nine printing presses, four metal works and ten engineering establishments of which three produce spare parts, one agricultural implements and the rest are concerned with general engineering. In addition, there are five *kumkum* manufacturing establishments, one *gur* factory, one synthetic twisting and weaving unit and three motor repairing and motor-body building establishments.

There is a bicycle manufacturing factory situated three miles from Amravati. The unit when fully developed will turn out 12,000 bicycles every year.

The Banarse Plastic Industries on the Amravati-Badnera Road produces electrical appliances.

The following statement gives the number of persons engaged in Industries under " Mining and Quarrying ", " Manufacturing ", " Construction " and " Electricity, Gas, Water and Sanitary Services " in Amravati district in 1961.

TABLE No. 1

PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1961

Classification of Industries	Total Workers			Workers in Household Industry			Workers in non-Household Industry		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Division 1									
Mining and Quarrying	642	350	292	5	4	1	637	346	291
Divisions 2 and 3									
Manufacturing—									
Foodstuffs	3,691	3,512	379	994	766	228	2,897	2,746	151
Beverages	122	121	1	5	5	..	117	116	1
Tobacco Products	146	86	60	91	42	49	55	44	11
Textile-Cotton	7,810	5,576	2,234	2,513	1,402	1,111	5,297	4,174	1,123
Textile-Jute	180	87	93	148	61	87	32	26	6
Textile-Wool	15	9	6	14	9	5	1	..	1
Textile-Silk	8	7	1	4	3	1	4	4	..
Textile-Miscellaneous	5,458	4,714	744	2,426	1,825	601	3,032	2,889	143
Wood and Wooden Products	5,371	4,524	847	3,800	2,969	831	1,571	1,555	16
Paper and Paper Products	10	10	..	..	..	..	10	10	..
Printing and Publishing	353	333	20	17	17	..	336	316	20
Leather and Leather Products	1,767	1,644	123	1,329	1,236	93	438	408	30
Rubber, Petroleum and Coal Products	42	42	..	..	..	..	42	42	.
Chemicals and Chemical Products	160	132	28	42	41	1	118	91	27
Non-metallic Mineral Products	2,800	2,021	779	2,187	1,584	603	613	437	176
Basic Metals and their Products	2,228	2,113	115	1,384	1,284	100	844	829	15
Machinery and Electrical Equipment	319	319	.	48	..	..	271	271	..
Transport Equipment	954	953	1	70	70	..	884	883	1
Miscellaneous Manufacturing Industries	1,125	1,093	32	490	468	22	635	625	10

TABLE No. 1—*contd.*

PERSONS ENGAGED IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1961—*contd.*

Classification of Industries	Total Workers			Workers in Household Industry			Workers in non-Household Industry		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
Division 1									
Mining and Quarrying	642	350	292	5	4	1	637	346	29
Division 4									
Construction									
Construction and Maintenance of Buildings	3,012	2,596	416	..	..	..	3,012	2,596	416
Construction and Maintenance of Roads, Railways, Bridges and Tunnels.	714	598	116	..	..	..	714	598	116
Construction and Maintenance of Telegraph and Telephone Lines.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Construction and Maintenance of Water Ways and Water Reservoirs and other Agricultural Works.	85	78	7	..	..	..	85	78	7
Division 5									
Electricity, Gas, Water and Sanitary Services									
Electricity and Gas	611	605	6	..	..	..	611	605	6
Water Supply and Sanitary Service ..	161	90	71	..	..	..	161	90	71

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Industries.

INTRODUCTION.

In 1962, there were 97 industrial units registered under the Factories Act, 1948. Of these 40 units were large-scale and 57 were small-scale. Besides these there were 17 small-scale units which were not registered under the Factories Act. Further there were five large-scale industrial units which had not yet started production. The category-wise distribution of these industrial units and employment provided by them are given below*:—

Category (1)	Number of units (2)	Number of workers engaged (3)
1. †Large-Scale—		
Yarn and cloth	2	1,845
Cotton Ginning and Pressing	31	6,279
Oil Crushing and Oil cake	6	672
Maintenance and Repair of Motor Vehicles	1	52
2. ‡Small-Scale—		
Pulses	8	144
Food Products	1	20
Art silk Yarn	1	5
Cotton Ginning	3	468
Printing Presses	10	206
Oil and Oil cakes	5	112
Metal works : utensils and implements	2	7
Electrical goods	1	6
Buttons	2	10
Stationery and miscellaneous goods	1	2
3. §Large Scale Units—		
Cotton Yarn	3	..
Chemicals	1	.
Vegetable oil	1	80

¶Besides these there are a number of units which have not as yet been registered under the Factories Act.

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Electricity Generation.

The supply of electricity to the Amravati district is chiefly from the Khaparkheda South Thermal Grid Scheme. The supply to the Dharni Town is from the Dharni Power House. Power supply was made available to the district from the Vidarbha Grid Scheme in the year 1951 and the Dharni Power House was established as late as 1963. The installed capacity and area of supply were increased from time to time and further extensions and increase in the power-load is proposed. In recent years, a beginning has been made in the electrification of the

*Details collected from the Commercial Directory of Industries in Maharashtra, 1962, Parts I, II and III.

†Industrial units registered under the Factories Act, 1948, and Industrial (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951.

‡Industrial units registered under the Factories Act, 1948.

§Licensed units not gone into production.

¶Industrial units not registered under the Factories Act.

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Electricity Generation.

processing industries in the district such as ginning and pressing and oil mills. Powerlooms are also being used on an increasing scale. Besides, there are about 3,500 water pumps in the district working on electricity.

The following statement gives the location of each power house, its installed capacity, power supplied, area of supply, fixed capital, etc.

There are several proposals for further extension of electrification. From the Dharni Power House it is proposed to supply electricity to Kusumkot, Dharni and Kalamkhar for agricultural pumps. From the Vidarbha Grid System it is proposed to bring new villages under electrification and to increase the power-load.

TABLE No. 2

ELECTRICITY GENERATION AND SUPPLY FOR AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Station	Date of establishment	Total Installed Capacity in K. W.	Composition	Power Supplied in K. W.		Rate per unit in Rs.	
				Industry	House-hold	Industry	House-hold
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Dharni	11th April 1963	105	2 Sets of 75 K. W. and 30 K. W. respectively.	15	18	0·15	0·44
Vidarbha Grid Scheme.	Power supply made available from the Vidarbha Grid Scheme in 1951.	No generation	No separate meter for Amravati district.	6,937	8,976	0·15	0·31

Station	Area of Supply	Mileage of Power Line	Fixed Capital in Rs.	Working Capital in Rs.	Value of Productive Machinery in Rs.	Total Number of workers	Annual Wage Bill in Rs.
(1)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
Dharni	Dharni Town ..	2·75 miles	2,37,000	98,686	1,40,000	12	32,687
Vidarbha Grid Scheme	Amravati district ..	66 K. W. 120 miles, 33 K. W. 63 miles.	14,77,128	N.A.	N.A.	575	4,88,400

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Auto-repairing and General Engineering.

Auto-repairing and general engineering is mainly located at Amravati proper. The expansion programme of motorable roads and subsequent increase in automobile vehicles and marketing centres have brought about an appreciable rise in the demand for services rendered by this industry. The activities of the units are diverse, ranging from the production of spare parts to welding, manufacture of agricultural implements, motor repairs, etc. Most of them are small-scale units engaged in ancillary manufacturing activities.

One of the units was established in 1925 while another was established in 1958. They work throughout the year.

The fixed capital, including the value of land and buildings, plant and machinery of these two units is Rs. 1,15,775. Their working capital amounts to Rs. 2,17,216.

These units use hard coke, coal and electricity as fuel and power. The value of fuel consumed by one of the reporting units is Rs. 3,700.

Gun metal, copper, aluminium, white metal and cast iron are used as raw materials. These are brought in the form of ingots, slabs, scrappings and castings. Packing material consists of hessians, craft paper, wooden cases and straw boards. The other accessories required are chemicals such as acetylene, acids, calcium carbide, soda ash and other auxiliaries like paints and varnishes. The raw materials are purchased at Amravati and Nagpur.

These units generally employ men workers. The labour employed consists of turners, moulders, fitters and coolies.

The wage rates differ as between skilled and unskilled workers.

The employees numbered 56 and their annual wage-bill (together with money value of other benefits and privileges) stood at Rs. 54,769 in 1962.

The products include spare parts of oil engines, steam engines, tractors and automobiles. Besides, these units also repair automobiles. The demand for the services of these units is local.

Textiles.

The rich black cotton soil of the district gives a plentiful yield of cotton crop which occupies an area of about 344,250 hectares (8.5 lakh acres). This factor led to the development of cotton spinning and weaving industry in the district. In addition to a number of hand-weaving establishments there were in 1962 two textile mills, *viz.*, the Berar Manufacturing Company, Ltd., at Badnera and the Vidarbha Mills (Berar), Ltd., at Achalpur.

The most important manufacture of the district in 1907* was cotton yarn and cloth by the mills at Badnera. The first textile mill in the district, *viz.*, the Berar Manufacturing Company,

*Central Provinces and Berar District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Vol. A, 1911, Page 238.

Ltd., Badnera, was opened in 1885. Yarn of all kinds and woven goods were produced. The articles produced were extremely durable and stood rough wear.

As a result of the cotton boom during the triennium after 1921 the number of cotton ginning and pressing factories increased. The textile industry, however, suffered a set back because of the 3½ per cent excise duty imposed on mill cloth and also on account of depression, labour troubles, currency difficulties, etc. The abolition of the excise duty in 1926 coupled with the continued tariff protection helped the mill industry. Besides, the textile mills had started to reap the benefits of mechanisation and large-scale production and could now undertake the production of all types of fabrics successfully. Preference for simple attire and laundered clothing benefited the mills. A further impetus was provided by the Swadeshi and non-co-operation movement in the thirties of the century. The output of the mills increased appreciably. In 1925 a new textile mill, *viz.*, the Vidarbha Mills (Berar), Ltd., was established at Achalpur. During the period of the Second World War (1939-45), the mill industry developed further and could easily cope up with the rising wartime demand.

The production of the textile mills of the district during the decade 1950 to 1960 was as under:—

Item (1)	Units (2)	1950 (3)	1955 (4)	1960 (5)
Cotton Yarn ..	Units in Kilos	24·12 (1,087,200·000 Kilos)	56·19 (2,536.800 000 Kilos)	26·52 (1,223,100·000 Kilos)
Cotton cloth ..	Units in Kilos	69·24 (3,125,700·000)	144·20 (6,523.200·000)	93·01 (4,212,900·000)

The Berar Manufacturing Company at Badnera closed down during 1959-60, which resulted in a steep fall in the production.

The unit that was in operation in 1960 was established in 1925 and worked perennially. The working days put in by the unit in 1960 were 358.

The fixed capital of the concern, which included the value of land and building, plant and machinery, tools and other equipment as also other assets such as furniture, fixtures, fittings and vehicles amounted to Rs. 14,47,642 in 1960. The value of plant and machinery, tools and other equipment accounted for Rs. 7,24,321 and that of land and buildings stood at Rs. 5,67,712. Machinery included looms, spindles, warping, spinning and sizing machines, etc. The value of working capital, comprising raw materials, fuel, consumable stores, finished and semi-finished products and cash at bank or in hand was estimated at Rs. 28,78,333.

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Textiles.

The number of persons of all categories employed by the establishment was 1,349 in 1960. Of these, the actual workers were 1,211 consisting of 1,178 men and 33 women. The rest were employed in administrative duties. The wage-bill in 1960 was Rs. 21,15,166. Of this, the wages and salaries (together with bonus and other monetary benefits to workers) represented Rs. 17,35,656 and that of the persons other than workers, Rs. 2,47,055. The money value of other benefits and privileges was estimated at Rs. 1,32,455.

Coal, oil and electricity were used as fuel. The number of units of electricity consumed and their cost in 1960 stood at Rs. 38,13,835 and Rs. 2,14,948 respectively. The total expenditure on fuel in the same year was Rs. 3,18,171.

The raw materials used consisted of cotton, yarn, colours, chemicals and other store-materials. Cotton was brought from Akola, Amravati and other cotton markets in Vidarbha region, colours and chemicals, needed for finishing and dyeing mainly came from Japan and Germany and were purchased at Bombay and Nagpur. The value of cotton, consumed during 1960 was Rs. 39,14,965. The total value of all the raw materials consumed during the same year was Rs. 44,85,419.

The finished products were dhotis, long-cloth, chaddars and yarn. The following table gives the quantity and value of the products in the year 1960:—

Item (1)	Unit (2)	Quantity (3)	Value in Rs. (4)
1. Dhotis	(Meters) Yards ..	(2,037,589·19 Meters) 22,39,109	16,84,676
2. Long-cloth ..	Do. ..	(5,993,954·33 Meters) 65,80,763	41,97,641
3. Chaddars ..	Do. ..	(151,841·69 Meters) 1,66,859	1,10,127
4. Yarn	Lbs.	(210,251·796 Kilos) 4,64,132	9,46,876
		Total ..	69,39,320

Most of the product was locally sold and the rest found its way into outside markets.

The main difficulties experienced were replacement of old machinery, shortage of working capital and skilled labour. The unit received a loan of Rs. 25 lakhs from the Government for the purchase of machinery and to serve as working capital.

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Ginning and Pressing.

Another important industry thriving on the abundant cotton crop is the ginning and pressing industry in the district. It is one of the few oldest industries in the district, established as far back as 1870. The position of the industry in 1907 was as under*.

"At the end of 1907, there were in existence 88 factories carrying on this business, 60 being concerned with ginning and 28 with pressing. No estimate can be formed of the collective capital of these concerns, though it is stated that 62 of which figures are obtainable account for some 47 lakhs, and it is calculated that a single gin requires a little over Rs. 1,200 of capital and a press Rs. 75,000 it may safely be said that the total investment is well over half a crore of rupees. In the factories, which come within the scope of the Factories Act (30 only at the present day) slightly over one thousand operatives were employed in 1894; the number increased steadily till 1904 in which year they stood at 6,000. The monthly wages earned by unskilled labourers are about 8 rupees per mensem."

Since then the industry has expanded considerably, the number of factories registered under the Factories Act standing at 31 in 1962. Amravati, Dhamangaon, Banosa, Achalpur, Warud and Anjangaon are the important centres of the industry.

The industry is seasonal, the working season spreading over from November to April. The actual working days generally varied between 80 and 150. One of the reporting units was established in 1904, four were established between 1910 and 1920 four between 1930 and 1940, four between 1940 and 1950, six between 1950 and 1960 and one in 1961.

The value of the fixed capital of the 19 reporting units was Rs. 30,18,081 in 1962. The value of the working capital, which includes the value of raw materials, fuel, by-products, finished products, etc., stood at Rs. 17,24,200 in the same year, as reported by 17 units.

The tools and equipment used in these units consisted of single or double roller gins, high or low pressure presses, cotton operators, steam or oil engine, boiler and drilling machine.

Diesel oil, coal and groundnut husk were used as fuel. Power was also used by a few units. The value of power consumed by 20 reporting units was Rs. 4,47,618 for the year 1962.

The labour force was composed of both men and women. The maximum number of workers employed by a unit was 272. The skilled workers included engine drivers, fitters, boiler attendants, firemen, ginmen and roll-cutters. The other staff included managers, clerks and supervisors. Besides, the units employed unskilled labour. The daily wages paid to unskilled men and women workers were between Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 2.00

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Vol. A., 1911, Pages 236-237.

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and between Rs. 1.00 and Rs. 1.12 respectively. Fitters, engine drivers and oilmen were paid on monthly basis. The total annual wage-bill as reported by 20 units was Rs. 7,11,369 for the year 1962-63.

Ginning and Pressing.

Some concerns undertook ginning and pressing for the mills at Bombay and Ahmedabad.

Oil-seed Crushing.

Oil-seed crushing is a comparatively old industry of the district and has been organised for many years as an industry on a small scale. The tahsil-wise distribution of all presses in the district was as follows*:—

Name of tahsil		Number of oil-presses
1.	Amravati	76
2.	Achalpur	162
3.	Daryapur	113
4.	Chandur	48
5.	Morshi	159

The oil-presses used cotton-seed, sesamum and linseed and the oil turned out was locally sold.

The quality of the oil thus extracted was not very pure. Similarly the yield was also low. Now the oil ghanis have been replaced by decorticating and seed-crushing machines. The oil ghanis are used only in villages for oil-seed crushing.

In 1962, there were 12 oil mills located at Amravati, Badnera and Chandur. Groundnut, linseed and cotton-seed were used for the extraction of oil.

The extensive acreage under groundnut and its fairly large production supply the raw materials for the industry.

Of the two reporting units one was established in 1940 and the other in 1950. These oil mills worked seasonally and their working days varied considerably.

The value of the fixed capital of the units in 1960 was Rs. 3,77,284 and that of working capital Rs. 6,48,897.

The equipment consisted of decorticators, expellers, hullers, filter presses and steam engines. They were purchased from Nagpur and Bombay. Of the fixed capital, plant and machinery accounted for Rs. 2,27,281.

The raw materials used are groundnut, cotton-seed and linseed. Cotton-seed and linseed are available locally in the district. Caustic soda is used in the process of extraction and is imported from abroad. Gunny bags and other store materials are purchased from Calcutta and Bombay. The value of raw materials consumed in 1960-61 was Rs. 34,31,987.

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Vol. A. (1911), P. [illegible]

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Oil-seed Crushing.

The products included cotton-seed, groundnut and linseed oil. The by-products included groundnut, cotton-seed, linseed, oil-cakes and their husk and linters of cotton. The cotton-seed oil is utilised in the factories engaged in the manufacture of vegetable products and linters are required in paper mills and acetate yarn factories. The total value of the products and by-products was Rs. 37,36,895 during 1960-61. The products are sold at Bombay, Ahmedabad and other places in India.

Coal and electric power were used as fuel. The value of the fuel used amounted to Rs. 80,473 in 1960-61. Husk, the by-product, was also sometimes used as fuel.

These establishments employ both men and women workers. Men workers were paid between Rs. 1.62 and Rs. 2.00 per shift and women workers were paid between Rs. 1.12 and Rs. 1.50 per shift. The total number of employees was 124 and the wages drawn by them in 1960-61 were Rs. 1,10,644. The oilmen and fitters were paid Rs. 55 and Rs. 80 per month, respectively.

Metal-working (Aluminium, Copper and Brassware).

Most of the copper and brassware required in the district was formerly imported.* However the district was known for the excellent *lotas* and musical bullock bells, made at Amravati and at Kasargaon in the Achalpur tahsil. Excellent gongs were also produced.

A number of units engaged in metal working are scattered all over the district. A majority of these are cottage units. The process they follow is very simple. They first prepare a clay mould. Different metals are mixed until the required alloy is obtained. The mixture is poured in the mould. The pot when cool, is beaten and polished.

In 1962 seven units engaged in this industry were registered under the Factories Act as small-scale industrial units. They were located at Amravati proper and worked throughout the year. Of the five reporting units, one was established in 1945, another in 1957 and the rest during 1960-61. The value of the fixed capital of these units, comprising the value of land and building plant and machinery, furniture, vehicles, etc., amounted to Rs. 1,63,695 in 1962. During the same year the working capital of four units totalled about Rs. 1,45,487.

Mechanical power presses are used in the production as they facilitate pressing, embossing, spinning, cutting and buff-polishing

The equipment mainly consists of power press, fly press, sharpening and scraping machine, spinning lathe, rolling machines, etc.

The principal raw materials used in the factories are various kinds of metals, *viz.*, brass, copper, aluminium, zinc, tin and stainless steel to form into an alloy required for casting. Of these zinc and tin are bought in the form of ingots, sheets and scraps.

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Vol. A, 1911, P. 240.

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Metal-working (Aluminium, Copper and Brassware).

Among other materials required are chemicals, soda ash, caustic soda, acids, sand etc. The value of raw materials consumed as reported by three units was Rs. 2,90,428 in 1962. The raw materials were purchased from Bombay. Electricity, hard coke, coal and wood were used as fuel in the process of production. The total expenses on fuel for the three units amounted to Rs. 12,680 in 1962.

The number of workers employed by the five concerns was 64 in 1962. One unit employed the highest number of workers, *viz.*, 34. They were paid Rs. 33,205 as wages including the money value of other benefits and privileges enjoyed by them.

The finished products of these concerns are mainly utensils of daily use of various metals like brass, copper, aluminium and stainless steel. Two of the reporting units undertook production of surgical instruments and steel furniture besides that of utensils of common use. The value of the products as reported by three units was Rs. 5,62,005 in 1962.

Almost all the units experienced difficulty in securing raw material and capital. For want of capital one of the units could not undertake production independently and had to produce goods as per orders received from merchants. One unit received a loan of Rs. 30.000 from the State Government under the State Aid to Industries Act. The produce is mainly marketed locally. A part, however, finds markets throughout the State and in the adjoining areas of Madhya Pradesh.

Printing and Book-binding Industry.

The industry is of a comparatively recent origin and its development is generally associated with the growth of educational activities and the press—the forum of thought. The growth of this industry in Amravati was limited as in the absence of any important dailies or weeklies, the work of the printing press was mainly confined to printing of books and other miscellaneous work received on Government or private account. In 1962 there were nine printing presses in the district and most of them were located at Amravati town. These units undertook the work of book-binding in addition to printing. Of the four reporting units, one was established in 1936. one in 1949 and the other two after 1950.

The estimated value of the fixed capital, as reported by these four units was Rs. 2,09,594 as against that of the working capital which was Rs. 33,630 in 1962.

Litho printing, offset printing and block printing were the main jobs accepted by the printing presses. In addition, they undertook preparation of drawings and designs, cutting, block-making and type foundry. The tools and equipment consisted of cylinder printing machine, treadle machine, ruling machine and cutting machine.

Generally power is used as fuel by most of the units. The value of fuel consumed as reported by two units was Rs. 1,250 in 1962.

Printing and Book-binding Industry.

The units use papers of various types such as art paper, leather and brown paper, ink, type metal, varnish, spirit, glue, stationery and binding materials such as binding cloth, leather, canvas, glue and cardboard. They spend mostly on paper which is purchased from Bombay, Calcutta and Kanpur. The superior art paper is imported from abroad. The other raw materials are available locally or are purchased from Nagpur and Bombay. The value of raw materials consumed, as reported by three units, was Rs. 37,500 in 1962.

The units print books, forms of bills, cash-memos, letter-heads, handbills and ledgers. One unit has printed a daily newspaper also. The gross earnings of three reporting units, stood at Rs. 1,03,808 in 1962.

The number of persons employed in the four reporting units was 58 in 1962. The skilled workers, *viz.*, compositors, machine-men, treadlemen and binders were paid on monthly basis. The annual wage-bill of the four reporting concerns was Rs. 30,607 in 1962.

Kumkum-making Industry.

Kumkum-making could be regarded as a unique and distinguishing industry of Amravati district. There were six such units registered under the Factories Act in 1962. They were located at Amravati and Badnera and worked throughout the year.

Most of the units were established between 1940 and 1960. The value of the fixed capital of the six reporting units, was Rs. 1,56,530 and that of the working capital Rs. 4,34,973. The machinery used consisted of grinding mills, edge-runner, dis-integrators, screening units, heaters and electric motors. Electricity was chiefly used as fuel. The value of fuel consumed, as reported by five units, was Rs. 12,619 in 1962.

The principal raw materials used by the industry are rhodamine, borax, spindle oil, barytes powder, rosin, turmeric and aromatic chemicals. They are purchased at Bombay, Calcutta, Nagpur, Hoshiyarpur and Salem. The value of raw materials consumed by the five reporting units was Rs. 6,23,213 in 1962.

The units employed both men and women workers, their number in the six reporting units being 108. Of these, one unit alone employed 48 persons. The daily wages paid to men workers varied between Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 2.00 and those to women workers between Rs. 1.00 and Rs. 1.25 The annual wage-bill for the five reporting units was Rs. 10,511 in 1962.

The units produced *kumkum* (vermilion), *lobhan* (a kind of frankincense), *gulal* (red powder), *bukka* (black scented powder), *sindoor* (a product of red lead) and *hingool* (red oxide of mercury). The products were marketed in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Banaras, Kanpur, Nagpur and other places. The value of the annual turnover of the four reporting units was Rs. 5,52,650 in 1962.

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COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

Introduction.

II—COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

There were at the beginning of this century a number of cottage industries. They included cleaning of cotton; stone tracery, woodworks, hand weaving in cotton, silk and wool; dyeing, metal working, working in gold and silver, etc.

The main centres of weaving were Ellichpur (Achalpur) City, Anjangaon-Surji and Kholapur (near Amravati).

The industries were both urban and rural in character. The urban handicrafts included quality textiles and other luxury goods for the aristocracy. The rural counterpart mainly consisted of blacksmithy, carpentry, pottery and weaving.

At many places the village artisans were mainly *balutedars* and received rent-free land in return for the services they rendered. Thus shoes and pots etc. could be obtained within a few miles of the village at the market place. The product was sold directly to the customer. *Baluta* system, though fast disappearing, still remains in some of the villages of the district.

Most of the industries such as weaving, bell-metal, leather-tanning, basket-making, oil-pressing, etc., were hereditary occupations of certain castes only. Mobility was conspicuously absent. The *chamars* engaged themselves in curing and manufacturing leather articles The silk and cotton weaving was mostly done by *salis* and *koshtis* and the rougher cotton fabrics and wool weaving by *dhangars* and *mahars*. The *telis* confined themselves to oil pressing. The impact of modern civilisation, growth of education and economic progress have in course of time partially removed these restrictions and occupations to-day can be selected by individual choice.

A rapid decline in the artistic excellence and economic importance of these handicrafts began with the firm establishment of British power in India. The disappearance of the Indian Native Courts which patronised them and competition from a more highly developed industry added to their plight.

With the establishment of cotton textile mills in the district and outside, handloom weaving suffered considerably. It, however, received impetus in the early thirties due to the non-co-operation movement which supported the use of khadi or indigenous cloth. The high price of the mill-made cloth also helped this industry which continued to be the main cottage industry of the district. The textile section of the department of industries was started in 1916. It introduced improved sleys among the handloom weavers. The change in the technique increased the output of the handloom industry from 1916. But this resulted in over production, which created fresh problems for the industry. The weavers also were not able to make any other use of the extra time released for them by the new sleys. The consumers of handwoven fabrics began to prefer the mill made fabrics, for the weavers could not

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Introduction.

readily produce goods of advanced pattern to keep up with the changing nature of the demand. Only those weavers who turned out finer and more artistic fabrics comparable to manufactured ones could hold their own in the industry.

The tanning industry in villages was hit hard by the competition from the chrome tanning abroad and in some Indian cities. The cheaper shoes imported from Japan and Czechoslovakia began replacing fast the crude though durable shoes made by the cottage workers. The manufacture of earthenware, ropes, rough woollen blankets, etc. somehow managed to continue.

Lack of improvement in the craftsmanship of the various cottage workers, and availability of cheap factory goods from large-scale production adversely affected the cottage industries. The machine made goods made a steady inroad into their field.

A rapid decline in the economic importance of cottage industries threw the village artisans out of work and thus increased the pressure on land. This resulted in the disruption of the village economy.

Several of the cottage industries have one drawback or another. Some need finance, some organisation and some technical know-how and modern machinery. Still others need greater facilities for procuring raw materials, storing finished goods and marketing them. Consequently the cottage industries are still mainly in the hands of the hereditary artisans working with the traditional tools. By reason of such a state of affairs their products lack finish and suffer in competition with the mill-made goods. Products of good finish and high quality when produced, are costly. Such goods are not much in demand in rural areas, and are therefore, to be marketed in urban areas along with the mill-made products. The poverty of the artisans prevents them from adopting new techniques and tools and they often resort to the moneylenders. Formation of the co-operative societies of the artisans is expected to remove the obstacle in the marketing of their products and financing of their operations.

The small capital and credit requirements of the handicrafts still make it an effective system of production in this country. Under conditions where transport is not adequately developed, where credit is unorganised, capital is dispersed and marketing system is yet in a semi-backward stage, cottage industries have a useful purpose to serve. Besides, cottage industries provide occupation to a number of people who would have otherwise resorted to agriculture or for whom agriculture cannot provide adequate occupation. The industry serves the needs of local people by producing articles of everyday consumption. The training and equipment required are simple. Further, in case of production where standardisation of demand is absent, variety is the dominant characteristics and artistic requirement

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is essential, handicrafts have advantages over large-scale industry. In the case of certain industries where goods made to order for individual customers are in demand e.g. goldsmithy, tailoring etc. small establishments serve the purpose.

For these reasons the State Government has adopted a policy of encouraging the establishment of cottage industries and ensuring their steady growth. Thus technical schools are run for training the artisans in different crafts, and co-operative societies of different artisans are encouraged. Besides, monetary grants are given to craftsmen direct through co-operative societies and advice is given in technical matters.

The important cottage industries in the district are handloom weaving, tanning and leather working; brick, tiles and pottery making; dyeing and printing; fruit juice processing; bamboo and cane working and oil-pressing. Co-operative societies of the cottage workers are formed at many places. They supervise and guide the workers and market their produce etc. The following co-operative societies have been formed so far in the district:—

Kind of Societies		*No.*
Weavers	...	14
Oil-pressers	...	10
Tanners	...	13
Potters and bricklayers	...	17
Carpenters and blacksmiths	...	12
Dyers and Printers	...	4
Forest labourers	...	2
Metal Workers	...	1
Fruit Juice processors	..	1
Bamboo and cane workers	...	3
Rope makers	...	1
Neera and *Tadgul* makers	...	2
Total	..	80

A provision of Rs. 4.50 lakhs was made to provide training facilities in various crafts. At present, a number of schools are run for this purpose, *viz*., the dyeing and printing school at Achalpur, tailoring school at Chandur-Railway, carpentry, smithy and tanning schools at Paratwada, and foundry school at Amravati.

The District Industrial Co-operative Association was established at Amravati in 1959. It undertakes the marketing of the products of various industrial co-operatives, takes steps to introduce improved tools and practices among the artisans, provides the necessary credit facilities and ensures supply of raw materials to various co-operatives at reasonable rates.

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Besides, financial assistance is granted through the following agencies to the industrial co-operatives of various artisans as well as to individual artisans:—

(i) The Central Financing Agency through the Central Co-operative Bank in the district at Amravati, Daryapur, Achalpur and Morshi.

(ii) Government under the State-Aid to Industries Act and Rules. The assistance is extended in the form of share capital, working capital, management grant or loan for construction of godowns and opening sales depots. With the formation of the Zilla Parishad in May 1962 the schemes for grant of financial assistance to small-scale and cottage industries and schemes for giving grants-in-aid and loans to individual craftsmen were transferred from the Industries and Co-operation department to the Zilla Parishad.

The Zilla Parishad in 1962-63 gave Rs. 4,996 to industrial co-operatives for management expenses, Rs. 1,000 for organisation of co-operative societies of artisans, Rs. 1,000 as loan and an equal amount as subsidy for purchase of tools and equipment.

(iii) Khadi and Village Industries Board.

(iv) Small-Scale Industries Board.

(v) Handloom Board.

Khadi and Village Industries.

The Khadi and Village Industries Scheme was introduced in Amravati district in the year 1957-58, covering the following industries, *viz.*, leather village oil, pottery, non-edible oil, soap, fibre, hand-made paper and flaying. The Khadi and Village Industries Board has so far made Rs. 3,29,670 available by way of loan and grants for the promotion of industries in the district included in the scheme. About 56 industrial units derived benefit from this. The various industries run under the scheme employed about 700 persons in 1961-62.

Amravati district is primarily an agricultural district where a variety of crops is grown. Thus raw materials required for running village industries are easily available *e.g.* groundnuts, til, linseed, cotton-seed and clay of various types suitable for the making of bricks, tiles and pottery plentifully available in the river beds. There is a thick growth of rich forest in Melghat and Morshi tahsils which provides useful forest material like timber, bamboo, *hirda* (myrobalan seed) grass etc. Non-edible oil-seeds like Mahua, castor, neem seeds, etc. are also available in plenty in Melghat and Morshi tahsils. Most of the forest produce and non-edible oil-seeds are marketed outside the district. Village industries thus, have a good scope in the district and can profitably make use of the material available locally and at the same time provide employment to a number of persons.

Handloom-weaving.

Handloom-weaving is the premier cottage industry of the district with a long tradition. The rich cotton growing district of

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Amravati has always been an important centre of handloom-weaving. About 2,423 cotton looms and 288 woollen looms* were in the district at the beginning of the present century. Hand-weaving was done in cotton, silk and wool and in a combined thread of cotton and silk. Handloom-weaving was mainly confined to hereditary weaving communities like *Salis* and *Koshtis* and wool and cotton fabrics were produced by *Dhangars* and *Mahars.* The largest centre of cotton weaving was and still is Ellichpur (Achalpur). Kholapur and Anjangaon were known for silk weaving. Pure silkware was rarely woven except to order. The throw-shuttle-country-pit looms were in vogue.

The hand-weaving industry suffered from the same factors which were responsible for the general decline of the village crafts.

The impact was, however, felt severely by the handloom industry with the development of transport and railway communications. The demand for multi-coloured and artistic fabrics especially in women's wear continued. The cotton mills started in the country mainly confined themselves in the beginning to the production of yarn which was used by the handlooms. Besides, a number of factors favoured the development of hand weaving, *viz.*, (i) the Fiscal policy which favoured handloom by the levy of import duty on mill cloth and excise duty on Indian mill-made cloth. (There was no import duty on the yarn which was mainly used by the hand weavers.) (ii) The Swadeshi movement in the thirties which helped Indian Mills as well as handlooms by encouraging the demand for Indian cloth, and (iii) the policy aimed at replacing throw-shuttle looms by fly-shuttle looms which was pursued by the Provincial Government.

Gradually textile mills developed due to economies resulting from technical improvements and large-scale production and undertook production of *saris, dhotis* etc. successfully. The removal of 3½ per cent excise in 1926 further helped the mills and created a handicap for hand weavers. Import duty on the yarn which the handlooms consumed and availability of large quantities of silk yarn and cheap silk goods from outside after 1929 added to the difficulties of the handloom industry. Realising the balanced state of the industry the Government of India agreed to pay after 1933 a portion of import duty on yarn to the handloom industry as a grant. This was to be used for marketing schemes and improvement in designs. Peripatetic centres for training in hand-weaving were started and steps were taken to organise handloom-weaving on a co-operative basis.

The rising demand for textile products during the war was shared by the handloom industry with the mills to some extent.

The industry again fell on evil days as a result of the decontrol of textile goods in 1950. In 1952 the All India Handloom Board was established for the marketing of handloom

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, Vol. A, 1911, Pages 238-239.

cloth. In the following year the Government of India took further steps to help the handloom industry by levying a cess on the mill-made goods. The revenue realised from this cess was utilised for the progressive growth of the handloom industry.

This has, however, touched only a fringe of the problems faced by the industry. The main problems of the handloom-weavers are the supply of suitable yarn and capital and marketing of the product to their advantage.

Handloom-weaving is commonly undertaken throughout the district. The industry, however, is found to be localised particularly at Achalpur, Daryapur, Anjangaon, Nerpingalai, Shendurjanaghat and Pusla, etc. Handloom-weaving has certain obvious advantages over the mills and powerlooms. Extremely fine material (above 120 s.) of a very delicate variety is woven more safely on the handloom because of the comparative lightness of the jerks. Handloom-weaving is also suited for cloth interwoven with gold and silver thread and cloth with multi-coloured and delicate designs. Weaving of rough cloth of low counts is also more advantageously taken up by the handloom weaver as the tensile strength of the yarn is too low for powerloom.

Considering these technical advantages of hand-weaving and also the part which the industry can play in the economy of the district, the State Government has undertaken a number of schemes to help and solve the various difficulties faced by the weaver.

It is reported that about 4,698 handlooms work in the district. The occupation can be taken up by any person who has the means and the capacity. Some of the weavers in rural areas are landholders and work on looms when they are free from agricultural work. But there are families whose livelihood is entirely dependent on their looms. In 1951 there were in the district 2,031 cotton spinning, weaving and sizing establishments engaging about 6,493 persons and 44 wool spinning and weaving establishments engaging about 136 persons.

The cotton yarn used by the weavers is of different counts and is bought from the spinning mills of Nagpur, Akola, Pulgaon and Achalpur. Colours of different variety, bleaching powder, chemicals, material for sizing the yarn etc. are the other raw materials. Chemicals are generally bought at the sales depots of the Imperial Chemical Industries at Nagpur and Amravati.

The oldest looms in the district worked with the throw shuttle sleys. These are still seen in some parts of the district and are especially used by individual artisans in villages because their mechanism is very simple. It consists of one sley, one bamboo reed, one warp beam and one cloth beam. It is fitted on four posts with a cross bar for the support of the sley and

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can be conveniently worked at such a place in the house as a veranda by day and hung up on the inside wall by night. Shading is done through heddle's heads by the motion of the feet. The looms are mostly made and repaired locally.

The throw-shuttle looms of the past have now been replaced in most cases by the fly-shuttle looms due to Government initiative in the matter. The shuttle in the case of the latter is propelled by hammers placed at the end of the lathe which is strengthened for the purpose. This increases the momentum of the weaving process. Majority of the throw-shuttle and fly-shuttle looms have a pit at the back from where weaver operates the shuttle. In some cases the looms are placed on frames. This however increases the costs. In a few cases automatic or semi-automatic looms are used. This gives them some of the advantages that go with the powerloom. However, the expenses involved are higher for ordinary weavers. Addition of more parts requires frequent renewals and repairs which is not always practicable in villages.

Recently, a marked preference on the part of the artisans for powerlooms is evident. As a result, five co-operative societies, *viz.*, two each at Achalpur and Anjangaon and one at Nerpingalai have been given a Government loan of Rs. 3,88,848 and a subsidy of Rs. 13,814 for the erection of powerlooms. In 1962-63 35 of the 73 powerlooms thus erected by the societies were under production.

Saris, dhotis, shirtings, towels, carpets, *tadaw* etc. are manufactured by the handloom-weavers. Most of the cloth produced is of a coarse variety and is sold in the local market. Finer products of handlooms are costly and are thus less in demand. Carpets produced at Achalpur are a speciality and are in good demand.

The products of handloom-weavers find their way to the market through various channels. To reduce the marketing charges of the middleman, co-operative societies of handloom-weavers have been organised in the district. In 1962-63 there were 13 such societies in the district. These societies had 2,996 members in 1962-63 and a share capital of Rs. 2,46,564. These societies arrange for the sale of the products of its members. Among such societies, the Achalpur Weavers' Co-operative Society is doing commendable work with its yearly transactions amounting to over Rs. 12,00,000. For the sale of the handloom cloth the society runs a big sales depot at Amravati and a few at other places in the district. Some of the marketing depots are given Government subsidies as incentive. A rebate of 6 paise in the rupee is allowed for every sale above Rs. 2, but not exceeding Rs. 50.

Weavers, excepting only a few, do not have adequate capital resources for investment in the business. Most of them, therefore, resort to borrowing and sell their goods on retail or on wholesale basis on their own account immediately when the production is over. Government grants are, therefore, given to

the artisans through industrial co-operatives or where no co-operative society exists to individual artisans under the "State Aid to Industries" Rules.

Handloom-Weaving.

The Achalpur Industrial Weaving Co-operative Society, Ltd.—The society was established in 1936 with a view to providing marketing and other facilities to the hand weavers. The membership of the society in 1962 was 1,128 and its share capital, Rs. 1,24,868. The society runs a dyeing and a pattern making factory. Before its establishment, weavers of Achalpur produced coarse cloth. But the society undertook weaving of fine and artistic designs from 1953 and its products have earned a good name. The members of the society have about 820 handlooms and they are encouraged in adopting improved sleys and practices. For the marketing of cloth, the society has ten sales depots in the district. Besides, there are a number of mobile marketing centres and the goods are sold at exhibitions and fairs in the district and at Nagpur. During the period from 1953 to 1962, the society produced cloth worth Rs. 42, 320, 23 and its sales amounted to Rs. 59,18,295. The main products for sale are saris 7.29 and 8.19 m. (8 to 9 yds.), dhoti, *Khadi* cloth, towels, table cloth, *daris*, *tadaw* etc. The society borrowed Rs. 4,78,000 from a bank. Government also granted loans of Rs 1,500 to a dyeing factory, Rs. 98,200 to powerlooms and Rs. 30,500 to a housing society for the use of its weaver members.

Wool Weaving.

Wool-weaving in the district has been a hereditary occupation of the *Dhangars*. In 1911 about 288 woollen looms were working in Amravati district. The census of 1951 records 44 woollen spinning and weaving establishments operating in the district and engaging about 136 persons. Most of these were concentrated in Morshi and Chandur Railway tahsils.

The industry mostly produced coarse country blankets. The principal communities engaged in this occupation are the *Dhangars* and the *Mahars*. Fine and mill-made blankets have reduced the demand to some extent for the indigenous products This explains the fall in the number of wool weaving establishments. However, the demand in the rural areas of the district has enabled the industry to survive.

The process of blanket weaving is simple. Wool is spun into threads. Before it is woven, the thread is cut and sorted to the required length and then stretched. Dried tamarind seeds are boiled in water and the paste, thus made, is applied to the worsted thread to make it smooth and straight. Blankets about 10 feet (3.050 meters) long and 3 feet (0.915 meters) broad are then woven on handlooms.

Oil-pressing.

Of the total area of the district about 40468.600 hectares (one lakh acres) are under oil-seeds. The main oil-seeds grown in the district are groundnut, sesamum, linseed etc. The ready supply

[1] Amravati District Gazetteers, Vol. A, 1911, P. 238.

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of oil-seeds has enabled the oil-pressing industry to flourish. The industry is foremost among the cottage industries of the district handed down from the past. There were 558 oil presses working in the district in 1911[1]. Formerly, pressing was followed by the Teli community. But now it has become a common occupation for the seed-growers. The *ghanis* gave a low yield and the oil extracted is not completely pure. During the course of time, therefore, oil mills came to be established. In 1962 there were 12 oil mills as against one oil mill at the beginning of the century. The number of ghanis correspondingly went down.

In 1951,[2] there were 74 establishments of the oil-pressers, engaging about 231 persons. Oil ghanis are found throughout the district but mostly at Daryapur, Chandur Railway, Nerpingalai, Khopala, Katpur, Rajurwadi, Shirkhed, Morshi and Walgaon.

Oil is extracted from two kinds of seeds, viz.: (i) edible oil-seeds like groundnut, (Til) sesamum, safflower etc., and (ii) non-edible oil-seeds like *Karanja,* cotton seed, etc. Edible oil is chiefly sold for local consumption. Non-edible oil is used for making soap and in other manufactures. It is sent to Amravati, Nagpur and other places. Oilcake is utilised as cattle feed and is also a good manure.

The equipment for oil-pressing consists of the traditional village oil *ghani* run by bullocks. In some cases *nutan* oil *ghanis* have been installed. The artisans, however, show a marked preference for the baby-expellers. It is observed that pouring hot water on the seeds every fifteen minutes while crushing gives a better yield.

About nine kilograms of groundnut yield on an average about three kilograms of oil and six kilograms of oilcake. Eight kilograms of jawas yield on an average 2.25 kilograms of oil and 6 kilograms of oilcake. Both men and women are engaged in oil-pressing, men being paid at Rs. 2 per day and women a little less. Oil-pressing is a seasonal industry working from October to May. During monsoon the artisans are left without employment and often work on the fields.

The cost of extracting oil with the help of oil ghanis is much higher than that of extracting the oil in the oil mills. The village oil industry, therefore, faces grave competition from the oil mills. To mitigate the difficulties faced by the cottage industry, the State Government has organised co-operative societies of the artisans. There were 10 societies of the oil-pressers in the district with a membership of 155, the working capital of Rs. 42,036 and paid-up capital of Rs. 21,113 in 1963. However, only three of these are working at present. These societies are located at Chandur Railway, Morshi and Amravati

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1. Amravati District Gazetteers, Vol. A, 1911, P. 238.

2. 1951 Census figures.

and function under the Khadi and Village Industries Board. The oilmen at Chandur Railway were given a Government loan of Rs. 3,000 in 1962-63. Similarly the oil-pressing units located at Khopadi, Katpur and Rajurwadi in Morshi area were each given a grant of Rs. 2,100 through the Board. The oilmen's co-operative society and two other units at Amravati were also given assistance.

Lack of adequate capital for stocking oil-seeds during the season, old and outmoded machinery and equipment, absence of adequate facilities for storing and marketing the product are the main difficulties experienced by the village oilmen. Formation of oilmen's co-operative societies would go a long way in solving these difficulties by providing for the training and marketing facilities and securing financial assistance from the Government.

Tanning.

Tanning is followed as a hereditary occupation by *dhors* and Tanning *chambhars*. The industry is chiefly located in Achalpur, Morshi, Chandur Railway and Amravati tahsils of the district. Thugaon in Bhatkuli is famous for tanning.

The process of tanning is accomplished by the indigenous method. Cattle hides are dipped in lime water for a few hours to separate the hair, the fat and the fleshy part from them. The tanners use a knife (*rapi*) for skinning the hide and removing these elements. They are then washed and soaked in a solution of *babhul* bark and myrobalan mixed in water. To tan the hide thoroughly the soaking is repeated thrice. The hide is formed into a bag and hung up filled with a stronger solution of *babhul* bark and myrobalan water and left thus for seven days. Then it is washed and dried.

Raw hides, lime, *hirda* (myrobalan) and *babhul* bark are the chief requirements of a tanner. *Babhul* bark is found in plenty in the forests of the district. Tools and equipment necessary for tanning consist of lime and tanning pits, wooden mallets, *rapis*, *aris*, barrels etc.

The age-old tanning process adopted by the artisans in the district hardly enables their product to compete with the leather tanned at the tanning industries, which is of a softer variety and durable. The indigenous leather, however, is considered good especially for making rough foot-wear. Most of the leather tanned in the district is used by the local leather-working establishments.

Procurement of the working capital is the main difficulty experienced by the tanners. A major portion of the expenditure is incurred in the purchase of raw hides which are bought at about Rs. 200 per quintal. Middlemen generally advance the capital which they recover from the price paid for the tanned hide they purchase from the artisans.

To help the artisans to overcome these obstacles in securing finance and with a view to providing them with marketing

facilities, 12 co-operative societies of tanners and leather workers were organised in the district. The membership of these societies in 1962-63 was 338 and the share capital Rs. 20,349. There is a flaying and tanning centre at Nawasari circle in Amravati tahsil. There is a proposal for the establishment of chrome leather manufacturing unit in the district.

Leather-working.

Leather-working is one of the old cottage industries of Armavati district. According to the 1961 census, leather-working engaged 1,506 persons in Amravati district. In 1962 about 100 families in Achalpur were engaged in leather-working. The industry is mostly concentrated in Daryapur, Achalpur and Chandur Railway tahsils. It produces the footwear in common use like chappals, shoes, etc., buckets for drawing water from wells, leather straps and belts and other goods required by the agriculturist or the artisan. In towns the leather workers also prepare leather bags, purses, etc.

The tools commonly used for leather-working are the sewing machine, *rapis*, leather cutters, hammer, wooden block, nails etc. The tools used and the process followed are age-old and the hereditary training still predominates. The raw materials chiefly consist of tanned and dyed leather, rubber soles, polish etc. Tanned leather is procured from the district and is supplied by the local tanning industry. The artisans face severe competition from the footwear companies whose products are of a superior design and finish. In rural areas artisans work as a family unit. In urban areas they are in the employment of big establishments. Some of them combine tanning with leather working.

In 1963 there were in the district 12 co-operative societies of tanners and leather workers with a membership of 338 and a share capital of Rs. 20,340. These societies produced in that year footwear valued at Rs. 21,186.

Pottery.

Pottery making is commonly followed throughout the district. The census of 1951 enumerated 336 establishments of the potters engaging about 1,001 artisans in the district. The 1961 census gives the number of persons engaged in this occupation as 2,078 which includes persons engaged in related clay formers. Potters are mainly concentrated in areas near the river banks in Dharni, Daryapur, Achalpur, Chandur Railway and Amravati tahsils, as the clay found in the river beds serves as an excellent raw material for pottery as well as for bricklaying. Some of the establishments are found to combine pottery with brick making.

The potter's equipment mainly consists of the traditional potter's wheel, moulds, pickaxes, *ghamelas*, and kiln to bake the pots. Horse dung, clay and coal ash are the raw materials required. Fallen dry leaves of banyan and *pimpal* are used for baking. The village potter makes the traditional village pottery like *gadgis*, *madakis*, *ranjan* (round earthen pots) and *thalis* (dishes). The making of these articles involves a curious process.

There is the potter's wheel which rotates to give the proper shape for these articles with the helping hand of the potter synchronising with the movements of the wheel. The pots are dried in the sun and then baked in the kiln to make them perfect. They are then glazed and polished. At some places the potters make idols of Goddess Gauri and God Ganesh during Ganapati festival and *sugadi* (small round clay pots) during *Makarsankrant*. Some of them also make earthen toys.

The products of the industry are delicate and easily damaged. The potters always face the difficulty of transporting them to the market places. Lack of adequate capital resources and storing facilities and the age-old technique of production are the characteristic features of this industry. And yet the industry is flourishing because the potters wheel produces articles which could not be replaced easily by the machine-made product.

To enable the potters to overcome the difficulties faced by them the State Government has organised co-operative societies of the potters. Seventeen potters' and bricklayers' societies have so far been formed in the district.

Brick-laying and Tiles.

According to the 1951 census there were 128 brick-laying and tile-making establishments in the district employing about 887 persons. These were mainly concentrated at Daryapur, Chandur, Dhamangaon, Talegaon, Badnera. Yawali, Wadgaon, Wadali and Morshi. This was mainly due to the availability of clay in the river beds in these areas. According to 1961 census the total number of persons engaged in this occupation was 1,232 in which is also included the number of plasterers and masons.

The equipment required for brick laying and tile-making consists of wooden moulds, *ghamelas,* pickaxes, furnace etc. All these can be procured locally. Clay, coal ash, coal and water constitute the raw material A perfect mixing of clay, coal ash and water is done and the mixture is then laid into bricks and tiles with the aid of the moulds. These are then dried in the sun. Baking in the furnace hardens the bricks and makes them durable.

The price of bricks varies with the season and tempo of building activity. It generally ranges between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40 per thousand bricks and averages to about Rs. 20 per thousand tiles. Most of the production is sold in the local markets. Brick-laying is a seasonal industry. During the monsoon, the artisans are idle and hence work in the fields.

In 1963, the district had seven bricklayers' co-operative societies. four in Amravati tahsil and one each in Morshi, Chandur Railway and Daryapur tahsils. The societies arrange for the sale of the products of its members and advance loans to them. However, quite a large number of artisans still remain out of the co-operative fold.

Considering the availability of clay in the river beds of the district, brick-laying and tiles-making industry has good scope.

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The increasing building activity of the recent times is bound to provide good demand for the products of this industry.

Basket-Making.

Basket-making is a hereditary occupation of the *burud* community. The census of 1951 enumerates 433 establishments of basket-makers engaging about 1,124 persons. They make *supas* (winnowing fans) and *topalis, duradis, rovalis* and *Karandis.* The 1961 census gives the figure of persons engaged in this occupation as 918 within which other related workers are included.

Bamboos which grow in abundance in the forests of the district are mainly used for making these articles. The tools required are a sickle (*koyata*) and knife, which the artisans purchase without any difficulty.

Bamboo-strips are taken out with a sickle and wetted. Moistening the strip makes the weaving of the baskets easy. The products are mostly sold locally. There are no co-operative societies of these artisans.

Blacksmithy.

Blacksmithy is a common calling in the district. Every village has its blacksmith who produces and repairs agricultural implements and domestic articles. It was the hereditary occupation of the *lohars.* In rural areas the occupation is still with the hereditary artisans. In urban areas, however, it is open to any one trained in the art of blacksmithy.

The census of 1951 reported 151 establishments of blacksmiths engaging 333 persons in the district and Achalpur, Chandur Railway, Dhamangaon, Talegaon, Daryapur, Amravati block area and Dharni as the important centres of blacksmithy. According to 1961 census 1,191 persons were engaged in this occupation which also included the number of hammersmiths and forgeman.

The artisans make various agricultural implements like spades, axes, furrows, sickles, hoes, etc., and domestic articles like flat pans, frying pans, prongs etc.

Tools required are anvil, hammer, pincers, bellows, chisel, cutters and nails. Each artisan usually possesses a set of such tools.

The iron sheets from which these articles are made are brought from outside. Middlemen often supply the artisan with capital necessary for buying iron sheets and other accessories and purchase their products in lieu of repayment. This sometimes reduces the artisans to the status of ordinary wage earners carrying on repair work and production work on piece rate basis as per the orders received through their financiers.

With a view to rendering assistance to the artisans, co-operative societies of blacksmiths have been organised in the district. Two co-operative societies of blacksmiths function in Chandur tahsil and one of blacksmiths and carpenters in Amravati tahsil.

The artisans in Chandur Railway tahsil were given Government assistance of Rs. 1,000. The co-operative societies arrange for the marketing of the products of its members and provide them finance. A centre for training in blacksmithy has been opened at Paratwada.

Carpentry.

The census of 1951 reported 233 carpenters' establishments in the district engaging 367 persons. The number of persons engaged in this occupation was 2,841 in 1961. It also includes joiners and pattern makers. Every large village has one or two families of carpenters known as *sutars*. Formerly these artisans worked on *baluta* system, and a share in the agricultural produce was given to them for their services. The *baluta* system has now almost disappeared and the artisans are paid in cash. The main centres where carpenters are found in large numbers are Achalpur, Daryapur, Chandur, Dhamangaon, Guikhed, Morshi and Dharni.

Carpenters make and repair furniture of daily use, *viz*., chairs, cupboards, benches, cradles and agricultural tools, handlooms and warping frames required for the looms. Teak wood grows in the forests of the district and is used for this work. Other varieties such as *babhul* and *khair* (Acacia Catechu) are also used. A carpenter's tools are saw, plaining machine, foot rule, hammer, nails, screws, chisel etc.

Lack of capital for the purchase of wood and adequate training facilities are the main difficulties experienced by the cottage workers. Middlemen or moneylenders often advance capital. Some of the artisans are engaged by building contractors and *karkhandars* on wage basis. The wage depends upon their skill and the type of the work involved.

Four co-operative societies of the artisans have been formed, one each at Dharni, Daryapur, Chandur Railway and Morshi. These societies arrange for the marketing of the products of their members. The artisans are also granted Government assistance through the co-operative societies. A training centre in carpentry has been organised at Paratwada. With the increasing tempo of the building activity there has been an increase in the demand for the services of this class of artisans along with that of blacksmiths and bricklayers. The proposed rural industrial estate at Achalpur is expected to provide carpenters in the tahsil with ample opportunities.

Processing of Fruits.

Processing of fruits is of recent origin and is still in its infancy in the district. The *Shendurjana Rasotpadak Sahakari* Society is the only industrial undertaking doing the processing. It had in 1961 a share capital of Rs. 20,000. The State Government supplied working capital amounting to Rs. 50,000 in 1960. Besides, a juice extracting machine was given to the society through the Industries Office at Nagpur and the services of the Government Fruit Preservation Officer were also loaned to the society.

CHAPTER 5. Industries. COTTAGE INDUSTRIES.

The society has at present equipment for fruit-juice making only. In 1961-62 it extracted juice valued at Rs. 23,885. Considering, however, the large production of citrus fruits, bananas etc. fruit-juice making and canning have ample scope.

III.—LABOUR ORGANISATION

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

As the district is industrially backward the growth of trade unionism is also very slow and of recent origin.

The origin of the trade union movement can be traced to the year 1957 when registration first started in the district. The chief industries in the district are cotton spinning and weaving, ginning and pressing, oil-crushing etc. Most of the unions in the district were organised by workers engaged in motor transport and municipal services.

In 1963, there were 25 trade unions in Amravati district registered under the Trade Unions Act, 1926. Table No. 3 shows the date of registration and membership, income and expenditure of these trade unions in the year 1963.

TABLE No. 3

NUMBER OF TRADE UNIONS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1963

Serial No. (1)	Name of the Union (2)	Date of Registration (3)	Membership (4)	Income (5)	Expenditure (6)	Assets (7)
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Rashtriya Girni Mazdoor Sangh, Amravati	29-8-57	560	..	765·00	1,441·00
2	Vidarbha Mill Clerks and Other Staff Association, Achalpur	29-3-57	64	145·00	89·00	373·00
3	The Amravati District Gumasta Union, Amravati	29-3-57	323	1,063·00	409·00	3,710·00
4	The Achalpur Gumasta Mandal, Achalpur, District Amravati	29-9-62	Information not available.			
5	Bharatiya Gumasta Sangh, Amravati	22-1-63	Registration cancelled on 9th December 1963.			
6	The Central Bank of India Employees Union, Amravati	23-3-61	101	1,482·00	864·00	1,664·00
7	Lipton Karmachari Union, Nagpur Branch, District Amravati	29-3-63	Information not available.			
8	Motor Kamgar Panchayat, Amravati	29-3-57	375	1,784·00	1,781·00	..
9	The Berar Regular Motor Service Union, Achalpur, District Amravati ..	29-3-57	10	10,448·00	11,937·00	2,060·00
10	Vidarbha P. W. D. Kamgar Sangh, Badnera	21-2-62	493	1,487·00	1,473·00	48·00
11	Badnera Town Municipal Teachers Union	29-3-57	50	152·00	58·00	115·00
12	Municipal Kamgar Union	10-8-61	110	330·00	360·00	21·00
13	Amravati Nagarpalika Karmachari Sangh	29-3-62	415	1,245·00	1,298·00	33·00
14	Bharatiya Safai Kamgar Sangh, Amravati	29-3-62	Registration cancelled on 9th December 1963.			
15	The Amravati Town Municipal Employees Union, Amravati	25-7-62	Information not available.			
16	Nagarpalika Karmachari Sangh, Anjangaon, District Amravati	28-1-63	33	139·05	90·39	48·66
17	Nagarpalika Karmachari Sangh, Dhamangaon, District Amravati ..	30-1-63	30	90·00	80·00	19·15
18	Amravati District Hospital Employees Union, Badnera, District Amravati	25-10-62	227	794·00	694·00	100·00
19	The Ginning Pressing Workers' Union, Amravati	29-3-57	932	3,062·00	2,400·00	658·00
20	The Press Workers' Union, Amravati	29-3-57	Information not available.			
21	Bharatiya Dal, Oil Mill Kamgar Sangh, Amravati	30-11-62	Registration cancelled on 9th December 1963.			
22	Bharatiya Oil Mills Mazdoor Sangh, Dhamangaon, District Amravati ..	8-7-60	30	90·00	84·00	15·00
23	Girni Mazdoor Sangh, Achalpur, District Amravati	29-3-57	524	1,992·00	1,802·00	5,460·00
24	Rashtriya Mill Mazdoor Sangh, District Amravati	29-3-57	537	3,121·71	3,723·11	8,500·65
25	Siddharth Cotton Mills Kamgar Sangh, Badnera, District Amravati ..	29-3-57	Information not available.			

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

Of the 25 unions in the district, eight were from manufacturing industries, two of the motor *kamgars,* nine from the services of the State and local bodies, one of the bank employees; three of the *gumasta* workers and workers in ginning and pressing factories. Registration of three unions (as shown in the accompanying table) was cancelled in December 1963.

The unions derived their income by way of contributions from members, donations, interest on investments or funds etc.

Strikes.

Information about strikes organised in the district during the years from 1958 to 1963 and the number of workers involved, man-days lost and demands of the strikes etc. is given in table No. 4.

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

Strikes.

TABLE No. 4

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT, 1958—63

Year	Industries	Number of Strikes	Number of workers involved	Number of Man-days lost	Demands		Results		
					Wages	Personnel	Successful	Compromise	Unsuccessful
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1958 ..	Miscellaneous	1	58 Not available.	116	1	..	1	..	..
1960 ..	Miscellaneous	1	57	114	1	..	1	..	..
1961 ..	Textile	2	1,100	1,712	2	..	..	2	..
1962 ..	Miscellaneous .. .	2	94	364	2	..	1	1	..
1963 ..	Engineering	i	18	54	..	1	..	..	1
1963 ..	Miscellaneous	4	2,567 •	4,816	4	..	1	1	2

CHAPTER 5.

Industries.

LABOUR ORGANISATION.

Of the 11 strikes organised during the period from 1958—63, four were successful in securing the interests of the workers, three were unsuccessful and three were settled by compromise.

Labour Welfare.

Labour welfare is promoted through the Maharashtra Labour Welfare Board constituted under the Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1953. The Board took over the management of labour welfare centres in Amravati district in January 1962 along with other centres in Maharashtra and Vidarbha. The activities conducted by such centres are community and social education, health, games and sports, entertainment etc.

CHAPTER 6—BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

INTRODUCTION.

ALTHOUGH THE INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK OF THE ECONOMIC SYSTEM IS UNIFORM ALL OVER THE STATE, there prevails a wide range of diversity in the development of the credit institutions amongst the districts. This uneven development of the institutions is the result of a large number of factors such as location, the system of communications, availability of resources and the economic conditions of the masses. It is on account of these multifarious conditions that Amravati district reveals the peculiarities of its own financial structure.

Here, then, one comes across the same set of credit institutions, *viz.*, the money-lender, the banking organisation, the co-operative societies, the joint-stock companies and the other agencies extending financial assistance to the people in the district. Of these, the money-lender is the oldest institution which has survived through centuries with little of its pristine pattern. Although it still holds a paramount influence over the agricultural masses, it has been gradually undermined with the expanding business of the banking organisation. At Amravati proper these organisations flourished with favourable trade conditions and facilities obtained on the establishment of the State Bank in the city. The co operative movement, too, has spread its wings all over the district and has given people a new hope for better production, better marketing, and above all, better financial returns to its members. Side by side with the agricultural credit societies, which mostly influence the activities of the rural people, there is also a growth of many non-agricultural and production societies in this district. Much, however, is still expected of the co-operative movement suffering, as it is, from drawbacks such as improper linking of credit with marketing, poor recovery of loans financed by the societies and at some places a habitual preference for the money-lender by the agriculturists over their own organisations.

With the attainment of Independence, the old set-up of economic institutions underwent a remarkable change. It led to the expansion of the public sector. It restricted the private interests and reduced their profit margins. It also competed favourably with private oganisations in catering to the needs of people in the district and cutting across the chain of middlemen. Especially, in the field of Trade and Commerce, it supplied a fresh incentive to producers through higher economic gains.

CHAPTER 6.
Banking, Trade and Commerce.
INTRODUCTION.

But that is not all. With the passing of the Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act in 1939, many of the agricultural commodities were regulated and conditions governing trade were controlled. With the establishment of a number of Marketing Committees, trade was further facilitated throughout the district. Such developments were essential for any district but in Amravati, where trade in cotton and orange rules supreme, they were of special importance. It was not, however, by a negative approach through rules and regulations as by its active participation in the various economic activities that the State's role is gaining importance. "State trading" is an illustration in point. The establishment of fair-price shops to check the rising trend of prices and relaxing the strain of higher cost of living needs special mention in this context. The growing participation of the State in the economic affairs of the district thus constitutes an important land-mark in the history of the various economic and commercial organisations in the district which the following pages unfold.

SECTION I—BANKING AND FINANCE

BANKING AND FINANCE.
Money-lenders.

The institution of money-lenders is as old as money itself. Money-lending was a profitable business and any individual who saved a little of his income practised it by force of habit and custom. However, there was no law which regulated the money-lending business.

Private money-lending took various forms: between bankers and men of business, accommodation in one form or another was often necessary and this was given to persons of well-known financial stability. Such loans were commonly made upon note of hand only or bill of exchange payable in one case at sight (darshani), in the other 30 or 61 days after its execution: and a commission of Re. ¼ to Rs. 2 per hundred was charged. To cultivators loans were made on mortgages of land, and for these the usual rate was 1 per cent per month where the security was good and the reputation of the borrower excellent; 1½ per cent was the ordinary rate for loans to cultivators of substantial standing and 2 per cent or even more was charged in doubtful cases. The lenders were often persons engaged in various other trades, who might require all their capital at very short notice to meet a sudden call, and mortgages were of all forms of property the most unrealisable in an emergency. Grain was sometimes advanced by *sahukars* on a stipulation that it would be repaid at harvest in a ratio of 5:4 (laoni) or in unfavourable cases 3·2 (*wadhi didhi*). In Melghat the rates were even higher. The system, however, did not last long, as all the larger firms gave it up. Persons who could neither show well-known credit in the money-market nor produce landed security had to pawn valuables as security for their loans and would then receive the money on terms similar to those in force for mortgages. If they failed to do this they had no choice but to resort to the village Shylock or the Rohilla who dealt in petty loans at high risk and showed but little compassion either in the rates he charged or in his method of collecting debts.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-lenders.

Legislative control became necessary when money-lenders were found indulging in questionable practices. They took unfair advantage of the illiteracy, ignorance, credulity and helplessness of the ryots to extract money from them.

Mal-practices of Money-lenders.

The Indian Central Banking Inquiry Committee (1931) enlisted the following as some of the mal-practices followed by the money-lenders:—

(1) Demand for advance interest;

(2) demand for a present for doing business;

(3) taking of thumb-impression on a blank paper with a view to inserting any arbitrary amount at a later date if the debtor became irregular in payment of interest;

(4) insertion in written documents of sums considerably in excess of money actually lent, and

(5) taking of conditional sale-deeds in order to provide against possible evasion of payment by the debtor

Such practices put a serious drag on the agricultural economy of the district since they robbed the agriculturist of a substantial part of his income. It was imperative, therefore, to regulate the business of money-lenders by appropriate legislative measures.

C. P. and Berar Money-lenders Act, 1934.

With this in view the then Government of the Province passed the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders Act, 1934 and made it applicable to Amravati district along with other districts.

The Act was subsequently supplemented in 1939 and amended in 1949. The important addition to the provision of the Act in 1939 was that the Act was deemed to be in force with effect from the 1st April, 1935. According to the Amendment Act (1949), the registration certificates granted before 1st April, 1949. were to cease from being operative with effect from the date so appointed. The persons holding such certificates were entitled to refund of the registration fee in such cases.

Bombay Money-lender's Act

After the reorganisation of States in 1956 the district of Amravati formed part of the then Bombay State and subsequently with bifurcation that of the State of Maharashtra with the result that the rules, regulations and enactments which were already in force in the State were gradually made applicable to Amravati district along with other districts in the Vidarbha region. The Bombay Moneylender's Act of 1946 was thus applied to Amravati district from 1st February 1960. The important provisions of the Act are—

(1) The State Government was authorised to appoint Registrar General, Registrars and Assistant Registrar of Money-lenders and to define areas of their duties.

(2) Every Registrar was to maintain a register of money-lenders in his jurisdiction.

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Money-lenders.

Bombay Money-lender's Act.

(3) Money-lenders were not to carry on business of money-lending except in the area under licence and except in accordance with the terms of licence.

(4) The Registrar or the Assistant Registrar or any other officer was authorised to demand from any money-lender the production of any record or document in his possession which was relevant for his purposes.

(5) Every money-lender was to keep and maintain a cash-book and a ledger in a prescribed form and manner.

(6) Every money-lender was to give a specific statement to the debtor about the language, amount, security, etc

(7) The State Government was authorised to fix maximum rates of interest for any local area or class of business of money-lending in respect of secured and unsecured loans.

(8) Molestation of a debtor by the creditor in recovery of loans was to be treated as an offence and was to be penalised.

(9) Notwithstanding any law in force, no debtor who cultivated land personally and whose debts did not exceed Rs. 15,000 could be arrested or imprisoned in execution of a decree for money passed in favour of a money-lender whether before or after the date on which the Act came into force.

The Act was subsequently amended. The important amend ments made were the introduction of 4-A and 5-A forms and the "Pass Book" system, provision of calculating interest on *Katmiti* system and facilities to certain classes of money-lenders permitting them to submit a quarterly statement of loans to the Registrar of Money-lenders. Further amendment was effected in 1955 by which money-lending without licence was made a cognisable offence.

In the following year special measures were adopted for protecting Backward Class people. The Registrar and the Assistant Registrars were instructed to take special care while checking the accounts of money-lenders in respect of their transactions with Backward Class people.

The regulations enacted by the Government were not entirely partial to the debtors. The money-lenders also were given relief when the structure of interest rates was revised as from 5th July 1952. This was done with a view to ensuring a steady supply of credit from the money-lenders. Accordingly, the maximum rates were raised from six per cent to twelve per cent per annum on unsecured loans. The money-lenders were also allowed to charge a minimum interest of a rupee per debtor per year, if the total amount of interest chargeable according to the prescribed rates in respect of the loans advanced during the year amounted to less than a rupee. Although no separate account of money-lenders was maintained during the early years of the present century the following statement would give a rough

idea of the number of persons engaged in various kinds of financial activities including that of money-lenders in Amravati district, for the year 1913.

TABLE No. 1

PERSONS ENGAGED IN FINANCIAL ACTIVITIES (INCLUDING MONEY-LENDING) AMRAVATI DISTRICT, IN 1913

Towns	Total Workers and Dependents	Actual Workers				Dependents
		Total		Partially agriculturists		
		M.	F.	M.	F.	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Amravati	908	310	13	24	1	585
Ellichpur..	491	180	5	24	1	306
Shirasgaon	—	17	..	—	—	10
Ner Pingalai	—	25	1	—	—	10
Karasgaon	—	14	1	—	—	32
Kholapur	—	64	2	—	—	128
Pulsa	—	4	—	—	—	4
Mangrul Dastgir .	—	5	1	—	—	21
Dahigaon Jagir	—	71	2	—	—	114
Dattapur	—	71	2	—	—	66
Chandur Railway ..	—	12	3	—	—	30
Paratwada	—	14	—	—	—	19
Chandur Bazar	—	45	6	—	—	99

Since the application of the Money-lenders' Act the money-lenders were required to make application to the Assistant Registrar of Money-lenders in the district for either the grant of licences or for their renewal, as the case may be, before they could carry on any money-lending operations. Formerly, the money-lending business in the district was controlled by the Assistant Registrar of Money-lenders. Since March 1961 the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies works as Assistant Registrar of Money-lenders as well.

During 1959-60 and 1960-61 the number of licences granted for the first time was 24 and 126, respectively, whereas the number of licences renewed was 223 and 521, respectively, bringing the total number of money-lenders in the district to 660 in 1960-61.

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-lenders.

Bombay Money-lender's Act.

The following table gives in detail the Administration of the Money-lenders' Act, 1946, in Amravati district for the years 1959-60 and 1960-61 :—

TABLE No. 2

ADMINISTRATION OF THE MONEY-LENDERS' ACT, 1946, (FROM 1959 TO 1961)

Items	Year	
	1959-60	1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)
Number of applications received by the Assistant Registrar for the grant of licences.	25	135
Number of applications received by the Assistant Registrar for the renewal of licences.	230	625
Total number of applications received for grant and renewal of licences.	255	760
Number of licences granted for the first time	24	126
Number of licences renewed during the year	223	521
Number of Money-lenders holding valid licences	—	660
Number of applications in which grant of licence was refused	1	1
Number of applications filed or withdrawn	8	110
Number of licences cancelled u/s 8-A.	..	..
Number of licences cancelled or suspended u/s 14 ..	..	..
Number of Money-lenders who did not renew their (last year's) licences during the year.	..	498

The following table gives the Tahsil-wise distribution of money-lenders in Amravati district for 1959-60 and 1960-61, respectively :—

TABLE No. 3

TAHSIL-WISE DISTRIBUTION OF LICENSED MONEY-LENDERS

Name of the Tahsil	Total number of licensed Money-lenders during 1959-60	Total number of licensed Money-lenders during 1960-61
(1)	(2)	(3)
Amravati	260	286
Daryapur	75	76
Morshi	50	73
Chandur Railway	125	117
Achalpur	85	105
Melghat	5	3
Total ..	600	660

CHAPTER 6.

Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Money-lenders.

Bombay Money-lender's Act.

The total amount of loans advanced by the money-lenders during 1960-61 to traders and persons other than traders in the whole of the Amravati district is given in the following statement:—

Period	Loans advanced to traders	Loans advanced to persons other than traders
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	Rs.
From 1-2-60 to 31-7-61	1,00,84,371·00	99,87,334·00
From 1-7-60 to 31-7-61	1,57,09,819·00	1,07,59,433·00

Co-operative Movement.

The Co-operative Movement may be said to have started in Amravati district on 13th November 1904 when the first co-operative society was registered at Nandgaon Peth under section 6 of the Co-operative Societies Act. This society was registered as a Rural Credit Society with unlimited liability and had in the beginning 13 members. On 19th August 1947, the society was converted into a crop loan society with limited liability. It advanced loans to its members for raising crops on short-term basis. Subsequently, many such societies were started in Amravati district. These were mainly credit societies and received short-term loans from the Central Financing Agencies. During the Great Depression of thirties the loans advanced to the societies were frozen and numerous acres of land came into the possession of the Central Financing Agencies. Consequently, the liquidated assets of the Agencies were negatived with the result that the Government had to rush to the rescue of the movement and amend the Act suitably to safeguard the interests of the Agencies as well as the depositors.

During the Second World War the prices of agricultural lands went up. This proved very much advantageous to the Movement, as lands in possession of the Agencies were sold at favourable prices and with good profits.

During the War a number of consumer's and multipurpose societies were organised for the distribution of controlled articles. The societies flourished well so long as controls existed but with the removal of controls many of them had to be liquidated. This gave a set-back mostly to the non-credit activities of the societies.

From 1952 onwards the work of distribution of Sindri chemical fertilizers through the co-operatives was undertaken in the district. This considerably improved the position of most of the purchase and sale societies. At this time the Central Financing Agencies also granted medium-term loans direct to the cultivators to enable them to purchase pumping sets.

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

After the reorganisation of the States a new life was injected into the co-operative movement. The Government of Maharashtra took active interest in expanding it by contributing to the share capital and granting loans and subsidies to them under various schemes. This led to the formation and organisation of a number of industrial co-operatives, housing societies, forest labour societies, labour contract societies, farming societies and supervising unions. The organisation and functions of these societies are detailed below:—

Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies.

These Societies constitute the bulk of the co-operative credit societies in the district. They are engaged in the supply of short-term and intermediate-term (not exceeding five years) finance to agriculturists. Each society has usually a single village as its area of operation, but in some cases, hamlets and smaller villages in the neighbourhood for which it is not feasible to organise separate societies are also included under its jurisdiction. Membership is open to all residents of that area who satisfy certain conditions laid down in the bye-laws. The liability of the members is unlimited.

The funds of the society are raised in any or all of the following ways, *viz.*,

(a) entrance fees, (b) issue of shares, (c) receiving deposits from: (i) members and (ii) non-members residing within a radius of five miles from the village of the society, (d) raising loans and overdrafts from other co-operative credit societies or from financing institutions, and (e) donations.

The societies also accept savings deposits and fixed deposits for not less than six months. Savings deposits are accepted from members only on conditions laid down in the bye-laws. The rate of interest on deposits is fixed by the managing committee with the previous approval of the financing agency. Loans are granted by these societies for both agricultural and domestic purposes. They may be for a short-term (not exceeding one year) or for an intermediate-term (not exceeding three and in some cases five years). Short-term loans are granted for purposes of meeting expenses on seed, manure, weeding, etc Intermediate-term loans are granted for two purposes, *viz.*, (i) purchase of bullock-carts, iron implements, etc., the period of the loan being three years and (ii) payment of old debts and works of land improvement. The period of the loan extends to five years.

Normal credit is fixed for each member and loans beyond this limit are not advanced to him. The total outstandings by way of loans cannot exceed ten times the amount of shares standing to his credit in the society. Loans are given mostly on the personal security of the borrower. The society may also take mortgage of immovable property or of crops as collateral security. Loans are given in cash. Where the purpose of the loans permits and a suitable organisation exists, loans are advanced on the security of land.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Activities of the Co-operative Credit Societies Other Than Lending.

The rate of interest charged by agricultural co-operative credit societies depends upon their financial position as also on the rate at which they borrow from the financing agency. The Government have offered various facilities by way of subsidies to meet certain expenses of the societies.

A large number of agricultural credit societies in this district have been converted into service co-operatives. In other words, although all these societies are primarily agencies for supplying credit, in order to increase their usefulness to their members, they also cover certain other aspects. Thus it is made obligatory on members to sell their produce through a co-operative society. The society is also permitted to open a provident fund account for its members and to contribute to it out of its profit.

In Amravati district there were 651 agricultural credit co-operative societies in 1962-63. Of these four were central co-operative banks, 511 service co-operatives, 101 primary agricultural credit societies, 30 large-sized societies and five multipurpose societies.

The following statement shows the position of the Agricultural Co-operative Credit Societies in Amravati district by the end of 1960:—

Number of Societies	639
Number of members	42,943
Share capital (Rs.)	21.44
Working capital (Rs.)	117.25
Loans advanced (Rs.)	87.91
Reserve and other Funds (Rs.)	8.02

(*Figures of Rs. are in lakhs.*)

Land Development Bank, Amravati.

Till 1962-63 the Land Development Bank Ltd., Amravati, was the only primary land development bank in the district. It provided long-term finance to agriculturists on the security of landed property for land improvement, repairs to old wells, digging of new wells, construction of bunds and installation of engines and pumping sets for lift irrigation purposes, etc. The following table gives the statistics of the working of this bank for the past few years in Amravati district.

TABLE No. 4

WORKING OF LAND DEVELOPMENT BANK, AMRAVATI

(Figures in lakhs)

Year (1)	Number of Members (2)	Paid-up Capital (3)	Reserve and Other Funds (4)	Borrowed funds (5)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs
1959-60	...	0·16	0·19	3·18
1960-61	1 934	0·32	0·23	5·57
1961-62	2,655	0·48	0·24	7·91
1962-63	3,142	1·40	0·25	7·89

CHAPTER 6.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Co-operative Movement.

Land Development Bank, Amravati.

(Figures in lakhs)

Year	Working Capital	Loans Advanced	Recoveries	Loans Outstanding	Overdues
(1)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	*	0·58	0·39	3·49	0·87
1960-61	*	3·41	0·06	6·30	0·97
1961-62	9·34	2·88	0·52	8·66	1·32
1962-63	21·04	9·22	0·92	16·96	1·37

* Figures not available.

The Land Development Bank received subsidies from Government for financing construction and repair of wells, bunding, installation of machinery, etc. The scheme of subsidy was sanctioned on a permanent basis and was introduced in 1948. The amount of subsidy was equal to the difference between the economic lending rate and the rate of interest for Tagai loans. In 1962-63, the economic lending rate and the Government lending rate were 7¼ per cent and 4½ per cent, respectively, for construction of wells.

Another scheme known as the wells scheme had also been applied to Amravati district along with other districts of Vidarbha. Under this scheme Government used to give to the Bank, subsidies equal to the difference between the economic and the concessional rates of interest. A special scheme on the same basis for granting loans and subsidies for oil-engines, electric motors and pumping sets required for agricultural purposes was also being implemented in Amravati district along with other districts of Vidarbha.

District Central Co-operative Bank (Central Financing Agency).

Till 1962, there were four central co-operative banks in the district located at Amravati, Achalpur, Morshi and Daryapur, respectively. Each of them worked as the Central Financing Agency to the primary co-operative societies within its jurisdiction or area of operation. In January 1962, these banks were amalgamated with the Amravati Central Co-operative Bank Ltd., Amravati, which then functioned as the Central Financing Agency through its four regional offices, 16 branches and two other offices.

The Central Banking Agency sanctions loans or maximum credits to agricultural credit societies on the basis of their total requirements, undertakes other banking activities including collection and discounting of bills, opening current accounts, purchase and sale of securities, issue of cheques, drafts, etc., and

in some cases also makes arrangements for the sale of agricultural commodities, especially of the agriculturists who are under the Agricultural Debtors' Relief Act and who are allowed to become nominal members for obtaining crop finance. It has now undertaken to cater to the needs of the co-operatives in respect of finance for industries.

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District Central Co-operative Bank (Central Financing Agency).

The membership as well as the working of the Central Financing Agency in the Amravati district is given in the accompanying table.

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Co-operative Movement.

District Central Co-operative Bank (Central Financing Agency).

TABLE No. 5

WORKING OF THE CENTRAL FINANCING AGENCY, AMRAVATI

(Rs. in lakhs)

Year	Number of Members		Paid-up Capital		Reserve and Other Funds	Deposits	Borrowings	Other Liabilities
	Individuals	Societies	Owned	Government				
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	2,181	683	13·19	4·35	10·59	35·00	129·00	6·19
1960-61	1,954	696	17·57	8·85	11·42	61·12	105·41	11·62
1961-62	1,782	782	22·96	9·85	12·09	60·42	119·27	2·57
1962-63	1,584	788	27·80	9·85	13·53	99·99	85·09	5·37

Year	Working Capital	Loans Advanced	Recoveries	Overdues	Percentage of Overdues to Total Outstandings	Percentage of Overdues to Demand	Net Profit
(1)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	202·83	123·18	..	48·30	42	..	1·37
1960-61	204·38	222·71	..	33·16	22	..	1·95
1961-62	227·18	132·82	104·42	126·16	67	48·2	3·68
1962-63	211·63	168·89	165·52	97·11	51	35·8	2·51

Non-agricultural Credit Societies.

These societies are formed generally by traders, factory-workers, salary-earners, etc., residing particularly in towns. They supply credit to their members on the basis of personal security or mortgage of property. Capital is collected by them by issuing shares or by accepting deposits from their members or by borrowing funds from the Central Financing Agency.

After the Reorganisation of States in 1956, there were in Amravati district 25 societies of this type having a membership of 3,154 persons. By 1962-63, the number of societies went up by 28, and the number of members by 1,943. These societies included 40 salary-earners societies, two mill-workers societies of Achalpur and Badnera and one thrift and credit society. The progress made by these societies is given in the accompanying table.

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Non-agricultural Credit Societies.

TABLE No. 6

WORKING OF NON-AGRICULTURAL CO-OPERATIVE CREDIT SOCIETIES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT (FROM 1956-57 TO 1962-63)

(Rs. in lakhs)

Year	Number of Societies	Number of Members	Working Capital	Share Capital	Reserves	Loans Advanced	Loans Recovered	Loans Outstanding	Profit	Loss
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1956-57	25	3,154	1·08	2·87	76·06	1·70	1·59	0·65	0·15	..
1958-59	..	..	..	..	..	4·86	4·78	..	0·26	..
1959-60	34	4,988	5·19	2·12	0·42	2·45	2·55	3·40	0·28	..
1960-61	34	4,560	6·34	2·48	1·27	4·51	4·31	4·48	0·24	..
1961-62	39	5,038	6·21	3·07	1·49	3·74	5·09	1·11	0·56	0·09
1962-63	43	5,097	8·10	3·50	1·61	5·73	5·27	0·09	0·32	0·01

The rural credit societies occupy a prominent place in the co-operative movement of Amravati district. In fact, the extent of co-operative movement was restricted to the credit aspect in the beginning, and co-operative societies advanced credit to their members for specific purpose. Gradually their scope expanded and in the shape of service or Seva Societies they undertook a number of other activities. In 1962-63 there were 677 primary agricultural societies of which 608 were service societies. Of the remaining, 30 were large-sized societies, 35 crop loan societies and 4 multipurpose co-operative credit societies.

The statistics of these societies is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 7

WORKING OF RURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES, DISTRICT AMRAVATI (FROM 1959-60 TO 1962-63)

(Rs. in lakhs)

Year (1)	No. of Societies (2)	No. of Members (3)	No. of Villages Covered (4)	Share Capital (5)	Reserve and Other Funds (6)
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60 ..	639	42,443	1,486	19·07	6·68
1960-61 .	647	51,349	1,502	31·81	8·92
1961-62 ..	656	55,459	1,514	40·41	8·46
1962-63 ..	677	61,545	1,878	48·39	10·43

Year (1)	Deposits (7)	Borrowing (8)	Other Liabilities (9)	Working Capital (10)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60 ..	1·57	.	..	.
1960-61 ..	2·08	..	.	.
1961-62 .	1·93	177·99	3·80	232 59
1962-63 ..	2·47	174·32	4·09	239·69

Year (1)	Loans Advanced (11)	Recoveries (12)	Loans Outstanding (13)	Overdues (14)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60 ..	..	..	..	..
1960-61 ..	..	..	..	..
1961-62 ..	116·60	73·32	186·67	112·93
1962-63 ..	139·65	147·81	161·58 (S. T.) 16·93 (M. T.)	66·80

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The importance of these societies can be gauged by the following few facts. In the first place, these societies had the widest coverage, covering as they did 98 per cent villages in the district during 1962-63. The membership of these societies had also gone up considerably. In 1962-63, as the table shows, the societies had 61,545 members. The position of share capital had improved quite substantially. The increase was due mainly to the contribution from the government. There were also efforts to properly link share collection with the advances. It could also be observed that since the conversion of the primary societies into service co-operatives, these societies could render greater service and attend to the needs of the members to a larger degree.

The service co-operatives were organised on the basis of the recommendations contained in the policy resolution of the National Development Council. Generally, they were organised in villages with a population of over 1,000 persons. Where villages were small, they were organised for a group of 2 to 3 villages. The operational area of service co-operatives was generally identical with that of the Gram Panchayat. The membership was open to all and included mostly cultivators, artisans and labourers. The object of these societies was to provide credit for agricultural operations, for purchase of raw material, etc. But they helped the marketing of agricultural produce and covered all economic activities of the rural population so as to create a cohesive, self-reliant and prosperous village community.

Crop Protection Societies.

Among rural societies, crop protection societies form an important category. In Amravati district there were 16 such societies in 1960-61. The following are the statistics pertaining to these societies :—

Particulars	Year 1959-60	Year 1960-61
No. of Societies	18	18
No. of Members	3,196	3,000
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up Share Capital	235	330
Reserve and Other Funds	15,277	15,364
Borrowed Funds	586	419
Working Capital	17,947	16,975
Income From Services Rendered	39,596	39,596
Net Profit	910	5,613
Net Loss	929	879

Cattle Breeding Societies.

There were in 1960-61, four cattle breeding societies in Amravati district, of which one was dormant. They had in 1960-61 a total of 199 members. The paid-up share capital of these

societies was Rs. 1,825, while their reserve and other funds amounted to Rs. 3,558. During the same year the working capital of these societies was Rs. 5,896. The Kurha Pashu Sudhar Society received a subsidy of Rs. 3,532 from the Block Development Officer of Chandur Railway Block.

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Poultry Farming Societies.

The number of poultry farming societies in Amravati district during 1960-61 was two, and their membership, 125. In the same year, the paid-up share capital of these societies was Rs. 600 and their reserve funds, Rs. 263. They had borrowed Rs. 2,195 in 1961.

Consumers' Co-operatives.

Most of the consumers' societies in Amravati district were formed during the World War II when there was scarcity of consumers' goods. The distribution of these goods at reasonable prices was found necessary also to check the rising trend in prices and their fluctuations. These societies were entrusted with the work of the distribution of commodities like food-grains, sugar, etc. These goods were supplied to them by Government. The consumers' movement subsequently expanded considerably and by 1962-63 there were 77 consumers' societies in the whole of the district. Most of these societies, however, operated in the urban area. The following table illustrates the progress of these societies:—

TABLE No. 8

WORKING OF CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT IN 1959-60 AND 1960-61

Particulars	1959-60	1960-61
No. of Societies—		
(*a*) Urban	14	17
(*b*) Rural	55	56
No of members	..	7,138
	Rs.	Rs.
Paid-up Share Capital	1,56,000	1,65,000
Purchases	26,73,000	80,15,000
Sales	24,54,000	86,84,000
Cost of Management and Incidentals	54,000	71,000

Co-operative Farming Societies.

A beginning in the formation of co-operative farming and lift irrigation societies was made by an allotment of a number of acres of waste land, scattered over numerous villages in Amravati district, to landless persons on condition that they would form a co-operative farming society. Accordingly some societies were formed in the district in course of time. By 1963 there were as many as 13 co-operative farming societies in the district of which

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three were joint farming societies organised to undertake co-operative farming on land pooled by members and ten were collective farming societies organised mainly by landless persons to cultivate the waste land owned by the Government. These societies receive assistance from the Government by way of share capital, contributions, managerial loan and subsidy for construction of godown-*cum*-cattleshed and loan for land development. Following table gives the extent of financial assistance received by these societies:—

TABLE No. 9

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO CO-OPERATIVE FARMING SOCIETIES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Particulars (1)	No. of Societies (2)	Amount (3)
		Rs.
Loan for Land Development	1	4,000
Loan and subsidy for construction of Godown-cum-cattleshed.	3	15,000 loan, 5,000 subsidy
Managerial Subsidy	4	1,700

The working of the Co-operative Farming Societies is given in the accompanying table.

TABLE No. 10

WORKING OF CO-OPERATIVE FARMING SOCIETIES, AMRAVATI (1959—63)

Year (1)	Societies (2)	No. of Societies (3)	No. of Members (4)	Share Capital (5)	Borrowing (6)	Working Capital (7)	Land in Possession (8)	Area under Cultivation (9)
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Hectares (Acres)	Hectares (Acres)
1959-60	Joint Farming Societies ..	2	27	..	..	..	..	..
	Collective Farming Societies	1	11	10,695	9,300	11,533	..	..
1960-61	Joint Farming Societies ..	2	29	..	..	..	..	..
	Collective Farming Societies	2	24	14,175	8,575	25,352	..	..
1961-62	Joint Farming Societies ..	2	24	..	..	..	97·81 (241-28)	(Nil)
	Collective Farming Societies	8	127	16,025	38,145	63,346	239·36 (591-19)	111·24 (274-35)
1962-63	Joint Farming Societies ..	3	42	..	..	..	214·84 (530-29)	131·80 (325-27)
	Collective Farming Societies	10	153	16,919	78,681	98,304	367·56 (908-11)	145·77 (360-09)

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Dairy Societies.

A number of agriculturists pursue dairying as a subsidiary occupation.

By 1962-63, there were 28 dairy societies, one co-operative union and one federation. The progress and working of these societies is given in the accompanying table.

TABLE No. 11

WORKING OF THE DAIRY SOCIETIES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Particulars	1960-61		1961-62		1962-63		
	Union	Societies	Union	Societies	Federation	Union	Societies
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Number of societies	1	17	1	21	1	1	28
Number of members	40	261	48	372	8	31	595
Paid-up Capital (Rs.)	5,075	9,605	5,125	14,531	1,750	5,127	18,052
Reserve and Other Funds (Rs.) ..	48	773	48	878	55	49	1,075
Government Loan (Rs.)	23,128	2,500	23,125	2,450	16,000	23,125	25,350
Other Borrowing (Rs.)	..	1,944	..	27,350	..	..	30,676
Government Subsidy (Rs.)	7,675	6,000	..	2,400	..	..	8,200
Loans Advanced (Rs.)	..	..	15,587	6,811	16,000 (Government)	..	6,600
Loans Recovered (Rs.)	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,025
Profits (in Rs.)	..	..	..	2,553	1,742	..	2,000
Losses (in Rs.)	192	641	6,788	13,412	..	..	5,502
Milk purchased in	..	..	17,641	54,877	1,71,800	..	2,11,949
Sales (1) Milk	..	..	21,999	62,245	1,77,593	..	2,13,087
(2) Products	..	..	..	680	..	..	..

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Most of these dairy societies were affiliated to Anjangaon Milk Supply Union. The latter along with the five feeder societies in 1960-61 secured Rs. 28,625 as loans and Rs. 8,275 as subsidy from the State Government.

In 1962-63 a federation of all these societies was organised in the district. A sum of Rs. 16,000 was extended as loans under the Government milk scheme to this federation. The federation collected milk from the affiliated societies and supplied it to the Government milk centre.

Processing Societies.

In Amravati district there were in 1962-63 four processing societies doing both ginning and pressing work. There were also two large societies at Pathrot and Karajgaon which had undertaken ginning activity. Besides, there were other processing societies such as fruit and vegetable societies, oil ghanis and palm-gur societies which fell under the category of the agricultural processing societies. By 1962-63, there were 13 such societies, of which one was fruit and juice canning society, 10 were oil and ghani societies and two were Neera and palm-gur societies.

Co-operative Marketing Societies.

The aim of these societies is to secure fair returns for the produce of their members by undertaking its sale. They also supply agricultural requisites such as fertilisers, improved seeds, farm implements and machinery required by the agriculturists. The co-operative purchase and sale unions constitute an important link between the primary credit societies and the central banks and these institutions are utilised for implementing the scheme of supply of credit in kind and recovery of loans made to the agriculturists through the sale-proceeds of their agricultural produce. Thus, these societies realise the linking of agricultural credit with the marketing of produce raised thereby. All these societies have undertaken the distribution of the consumers' articles as per the centrally sponsored plan of consumers' co-operatives in rural areas. The purchase and sale societies at the tahsil level have been authorised to work as wholesalers for the import and distribution of sugar.

By 1963, there were 12 co-operative marketing societies in Amravati district. The progress and working of these societies is given below:—

TABLE No. 12

WORKING OF CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING SOCIETIES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT (FROM 1959-60 TO 1962-63)

(Figs. in lakhs)

Year	Number of Societies	Number of Members		Paid-up Capital	Share Capital Subscribed by Government	Reserved and Other Funds	Working Capital
		Individuals	Societies				
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	..	..	..	1·62	0·87	2·45	15·89
1960-61	7	3,078	378	1·70	0·86	2·91	24·15
1961-62	9	3,118	536	1·86	0·99	3·25	18·14
1962-63	12	3,235	619	2·06	1·18	4·01	23·84

Year	Borrowed Funds	Purchases	Sales as		Commission Earned	Net Profit	Net Loss
			Owners	Agents			
(1)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	6·21	39·57	37·39	22·43	0·44	0·76	Nil
1960-61	7·38	50·93	52·21	39·76	0·69	1·02	Nil
1961-62	1·62	24·29	20·03	44·95	1·13	0·49	0·10
1962-63	3·04	20·28	27·44	65·35	0·86	1·02	0·18

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In spite of the growth of these types of co-operative societies no significant success was achieved in linking credit with marketing. This is evident from the fact that the percentage of sale of marketable agricultural produce through the co-operative agency to the total of such surplus produce marketed in the district worked hardly to nine per cent.

Industrial Societies.

These societies consist of District Industrial Association, the weavers' societies, the forest labourers' and the labour contract societies and other industrial societies like the khadi and village industries societies, the cane and bamboo workers' societies, the tanners' and leather workers' societies, the pottery and brick-workers' societies, etc. During 1960-61, there were in all 107 industrial co-operative societies in Amravati district. Their growth is entirely due to Government initiative and financial assistance under various schemes implemented for the development of small-scale and cottage industries. During 1960-61, there were 10 oil ghani societies in Amravati district, with 155 members and with a share capital of Rs. 9,369.

Cane and Bamboo Workers' Societies.

In 1961 there were three societies of this type in the district. They had 41 members and had a share capital of Rs. 760.

Tanners' and Leather Workers' Societies.

These societies numbered thirteen in 1961 and had a membership of 348. Their share capital amounted to Rs. 29,463 while the reserve and other funds stood at Rs. 6,283. Their activities were mainly restricted to tanning and production of foot-wear. They had a working capital of Rs. 88,712, and the value of the goods produced and marketed by them amounted to Rs. 24,507 and Rs. 28,783, respectively, in 1961.

Carpentry and Smithy Co-operative Societies.

The societies had undertaken both carpentry and smithy work, the former on a large-scale but the latter on a small-scale due to the shortage of iron and steel.

In 1961, there were twelve societies with 212 members, a share capital of Rs. 15,706, and working capital of Rs. 55,352. In the same year the value of their production and sales amounted to Rs. 85,852 and Rs 95,393, respectively.

Pottery Workers' Societies.

There were 17 societies of this type functioning in the district during 1960-61. They had 302 members. Their working capital was Rs. 88,833 and reserve funds, Rs. 1,116, during the same year.

Co-operative Movement in Community Development Blocks.

The societies in the Blocks are divided into groups with an aggregate working capital of rupees one lakh. A secretary is put in charge of each group. Thus, out of the 1,567 villages in the district, 1,502 villages were covered by the agricultural credit co-operatives in the Blocks in 1960-61. In other words a majority of the agricultural population in the villages is served by the village societies.

Under the Second and Third Five-Year Plans the organisation of large-sized multipurpose societies has been discontinued. Instead, service co-operatives are organised on a large-scale. A

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plan for conversion of agricultural societies into service co-operatives and organisation of new service co-operatives for the areas yet to be covered by the co-operative movement is being worked out.

The targets fixed under the Second Five-Year Plan in respect of extension of agricultural credit, development of marketing schemes, and organisation of milk producers' societies and unions were achieved in the Development Blocks. However, requirements of the agriculturist for long-term loans for improvement on land were not met, due perhaps, to the weakness of the credit structure of the District Land Mortgage Bank.

The foregoing account shows that the co-operative movement has made remarkable progress in all the directions and is making its influence felt in every sphere of economic activity. With the successive Five-Year Plans the co-operative societies have acquired a new significance, since they are trying to do away with the intermediaries with a view to giving the producers full return for their products as also to organising the sales of agricultural commodities to better results. Although the performance on the part of the co-operatives, whether in the agricultural or in the industrial field, is quite fair and encouraging, certain drawbacks from which the movement is at present suffering become apparent. Although the agricultural primaries, for example, have increased in number, their membership does not keep pace with what was visualised during the plan periods. Here, more vigorous efforts are necessary for increasing the number of members as also to extend the activities of the agricultural primaries. It was also seen that many of the co-operative societies could not grow because they could not recover the dues from the members. Unless the recovery position of the co-operative societies is improved, the societies would not find it advisable to make new loans. Here, what is required from the point of view of popularising the co-operative movement is to create a "paying mind", amongst the agriculturists. For, this will change their attitude considerably towards the co-operatives and they will come to regard the co-operative organisation not as a substitute for money-lenders but as their own organisation to promote self-help and mutual aid.

The progress in the field of co-operative marketing. is a problem so far as the credit and marketing activities are not properly linked with each other. The marketing societies are required to be strengthened so as to be able to gain and command the confidence of agriculturists and would induce them to bring agricultural produce only to co-operatives. Of late the Government has been granting liberal financial assistance to them. A financial corporation is also being established. All these steps are sure to bring about far—reaching changes in the working of the co-operative movement.

Joint Stock Banks.

The origin of modern banking in Amravati district could be traced as far back as 1868 when a branch of the Bank of Bombay was established in Amravati city. To-day the banking business

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in the district has considerably expanded owing to numerous factors. The principal among them is the position of the district as a flourishing centre of cotton trade. The banks have played an important part in the financing of cotton business in the district during the last fifty years. Besides cotton, Amravati district is also famous for the production of fruits like oranges and bananas. The export trade of these fruits is mainly financed by the banks.

In 1961 there were eleven joint stock banks in Amravati district. Of these, ten were the branch offices of the banks with their head offices outside the district while one was a sub-office.

The following statement gives the names of these banks and their location in the district:—

Place (1)	Name of Bank (2)	No. of Offices (3)
Achalpur ..	State Bank of India	1 Branch.
Amravati ..	State Bank of India	1 Branch.
	Central Bank of India	1 Sub-Office.
	Bank of Baroda	1 Branch.
	Bank of Maharashtra	2 Branches.
Dhamangaon ..	State Bank of India	1 Branch.
Warud ..	State Bank of India	1 Branch.
Daryapur ..	State Bank of India	1 Branch.

The main functions of the banks are to accept deposits and make advances to agriculturists, traders and industrialists. In Amravati district, as mentioned above, these banks have played an important part in financing cotton and oil-milling industry. The State Bank provides remittance facilities at tahsil level for which it has opened branches at important centres in the district. The facilities of safe deposit vault are, however, available only at Amravati.

The branches of the State Bank of India have been endeavouring to promote and popularise the warehousing scheme. They give priority to the financing of small-scale industries in the district. The rates of interest charged by them on advances depend on the nature of the security and the amount required. The rates vary between 6¾ per cent and 8¼ per cent per annum. Lower rates of interest are charged for advances against Government securities as well as to small-scale industries and co-operative institutions or societies. Advances against warehouse receipts covering marketable grain and seeds are also granted at slightly reduced rates of interest.

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Another important bank serving the credit needs of the people is the branch of the Punjab National Bank, Ltd., established at Amravati in 1954. It carries on all the functions that a modern commercial bank is expected to perform. It deals in cash credit. It mainly advances against commodities such as grain and pulses, oils and oil-seeds, cotton and cotton bales and other commodities of daily consumption. The advances are payable on demand. The rate of interest varies between 7 per cent and 8½ per cent per annum.

The other important bank in Amravati is the branch of the Central Bank of India, Ltd., which was established in 1946. The Bank provides the same usual facilities as any other joint stock banks would do. It has proposed to introduce safe deposit vault facilities at Amravati. As regards the rates of interest, the Bank is bound by the All-India Interbank Agreement on the rates of interest on advances whereby the big banks maintain uniformity in the rates of interest charged by them. The Bank of Maharashtra has started its operations only recently in the district.

The following tables show the average month-end deposit balances of the banks in Amravati district in the half-year from July to December 1961.

They also give the position of advances of all the scheduled banks in Amravati district for 1960, 1961 and 1962 (March end).

TABLE No. 13

ANALYSIS OF DEPOSITS OF JOINT STOCK BANKS, DISTRICT AMRAVATI

(Rs. in lakhs)

Centres	Deposits at the end of Dec. 1961
1. Amravati Town	161 Average of month-end deposit balances in the half-year July-December, 1961.
2. Ellichpur	37
3. Dhamangaon	
4. Warud	
5. Daryapur	

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TABLE No. 14

ADVANCES OF ALL SCHEDULED BANKS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT ACCORDING TO SECURITY

(Rs. in lakhs)

Nature of Security (1)	March 25, 1960 (2)	March 31, 1961 (3)	March 30, 1962 (4)
I. Food Articles—			
Paddy and Rice (Total 1+2)	..	9	14
1. To Rice Mills	..	..	9
2. To Others	..	9	5
Wheat—			
(Total 3—4)	3	15	17
3. To Flour Mills	..	..	1
4. To Others	3	15	16
5. Gram	12	185	6
6. Other grains and pulses (including Jowar, Bajra and Maize).	913	1,594	978
Sugar and Gur—			
(Total 7—8)	550	313	288
7. To Sugar Factories	74	..	215
8. To Others	476	313	73
9. Vegetable oils including Vanaspati	143	512	108
II. Industrial Raw Materials—			
10. Groundnuts	227	241	289
11. Other Oilseeds	882	1,357	962
Cotton and Kapas—			
(Total 12—13—14)	5,940	8,944	9,452
12. To Cotton Textile Mills	525	1,128	1,806
13. To Ginning Factories	2,201	4,338	3,832
14. To Others	3,214	3,478	3,814
15. Raw Jute	5	3	..
16. Hides and Skins	2	..	..
III. Plantation Products—			
17. Tea	..	..	..
18. Cashewnuts	..	..	..
19. Pepper and other Spices	..	1,781	6
20. Coffee	..	..	..

TABLE No. 14—*contd.*

Nature of Security (1)	March 25, 1960 (2)	March 31, 1961 (3)	March 30, 1962 (4)
IV. Manufactures and Minerals—			
Cotton Textiles (Including yarn Total. 21—22).	1,776	832	2,686
21. To Mills	1,190	..	1,949
22. To Others	586	832	737
23. Jute Textiles	..	..	5
24. Other Textiles (Silk, Art Silk, Woollen, etc.)	..	..	9
25. Iron, Steel and Engineering Products.	53	100	101
26. Other Metals and Metal Products	6	6	7
27. Coal, Manganese, Mica and other Minerals and Mineral Oils.	..	..	..
28. Chemicals, Dyes, Paints, Drugs and Pharmaceuticals.	7	8	51
29. Electrical Goods	..	4	..
30. Rubber and Rubber Products ..	..	1	..
31. Other Manufactured Goods ..	24	7	110
V. Other Securities—			
32. Real Estate	17	17	..
33. Gold and Silver Bullion ..	262	5	6
34. Gold and Silver Ornaments ..	..	506	496
35. Fixed Deposits	34	58	37
36. Government and other Trustee Securities.	223	495	181
Shares of Joint Stock Companies—			
(Total 37—38)	7	8	2
37. To Stock and Share Brokers and Dealers.	..	..	..
38. To Others	7	8	2
39. Debentures of Joint Stock Companies.	..	1	1
VI. Other Securities—			
40. Assets of Industrial Concerns Fixed or Floating (other than those specified under above categories).	..	..	..
41. Other Secured Advances not mentioned above.	642	727	606
42. Composite Advances	48	142	177
Total Secured Advances—			
(Total 1 to 42)	11,776	17,871	16,595

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

Small Savings Schemes.

Post-office Savings Banks.

Small Savings are meant to augment the resources for financing the Five-Year Plans. The agencies for the mobilisation of these savings include *inter alia* the insurance companies and societies, the Life Insurance Corporation of India, post-office savings banks and other institutions conducting the savings campaign and collection drive.

The post-office savings banks constitute the most important source for small savings. They are particularly suited for collection of savings in rural areas where there are no banking facilities.

Amravati district possesses an extensive net-work of post-offices doing savings bank work. The following statement gives particulars of postal savings banks in the district for a period from 1959-60 to 1961-62:—

Year (1)	Total number of Sub-post offices doing Savings Bank Work (2)	Total number of branch offices doing Savings Bank Work (3)	Number of account-holders at the end of the year (4)
1959-60	33	130	25,927
1960-61	36	150	32,322
1961-62	36	163	34,303

Year (1)	Bank balance at the end of the financial year (5)	Investments during the year (6)	Net withdrawals during the year (7)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1959-60	1,45,49,524·11	77,82,099·91	75,29,218·57
1960-61	90,27,416·86	1,10,48,033·19	84,75,455·89
1961-62	1,91,12,298·33	13,88,84,495·65	1,03,68,764·04

Besides the post-office savings banks there are other channels through which the savings of the people are mobilised. They are—

(i) National Savings Certificates,

(ii) National Plan Savings Certificates,

(iii) Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates,

(iv) 15-year Annuity Certificates, and

(v) Cumulative Savings Deposit Scheme.

In addition, the Government have recently introduced the " Prize-bond " scheme.

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Small Savings Schemes.

Postal Cash Certificates and National Savings Certificates.

The commencement of the first of these schemes dates as far back as World War I when the then Government initiated the National Savings Scheme through the issue of Postal Cash Certificates. These certificates had a maturity period of five years and were sold at a discount and repaid on maturity at Rs. 10, Rs. 50 or Rs. 100 as the case might be. The scheme continued for some years even after the First World-War. During the 2nd World-War, in 1943, the Government started the scheme of (Post-Office) National Savings Certificates. This scheme was discontinued in 1957 when the Government introduced the 12-year National Plan Savings Certificates

The net withdrawals from the National Savings Certificates of different maturities is given below:—

Year	Withdrawals		
	6-year	7-year	12-year
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1957-58	85,070	45,065	2,84,505
1958-59	40	10,785	1,21,520
1959-60	3,175	42,340	2,49,115
1960-61	3,690	18,085	2,11,505
1961-62	10,540	33,015	1,71,226

National Plan Savings Certificates.

These new 12-year National Plan Certificates yield an income-tax-free simple interest of 5.41 per cent and compound interest of 4.25 per cent on maturity. The certificates are encashable at any time after the completion of one year from the date of issue. The Government of India has permitted pledging of these certificates with the scheduled banks and co-operative societies and banks in order to enable the small savers to get temporary accommodation in case of need without encashing their certificates prematurely. The certificates are sold at all post-offices doing savings banks' business in denominations of Rs. 5, Rs. 10, Rs. 50, Rs. 100, Rs. 500, Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 5,000. The maximum holdings permissible in these certificates are Rs. 25,000 for a single holder and Rs. 50,000 for joint-holders.

The following statement gives the net collection of small savings through the 12-year National Plan Savings certificates since their inception in the district:—

Year	Amount of investment
	Rs.
1957-58	13,60,780
1958-59	25,22,640
1959-60	18,84,285
1960-61	11,50,265
1961-62	8,12,860

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

Small Savings Schemes.

The Ten-Year Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates were issued from 1951. Formerly, the deposits were to be multiples of 100 only with a ceiling on the maximum amount that could be invested. From January, 1958, deposits are accepted in multiples of Rs. 50 only. These certificates bear an interest of four per cent per annum. Investment in them can be made by cash or by cheque. The interest is paid annually on the completion of each period of twelve calendar months from the date of deposit. It is exempt from income-tax, can be hypothecated and encashed before maturity, with due allowance for discount.

Insurance.

The origin of 'Life Insurance' business in India could be traced to 1870. In Amravati district insurance business was believed to have been started at a time when the Government Security Life Assurance Company, Ltd., had expanded its business throughout India. A marked expansion could be seen in the insurance business in the district after the Swadeshi Movement of 1905. Life insurance had remained till then in the hands of foreign companies. A further spurt in the formation of new companies was witnessed during the Second World War when inflationary pressure tended to swell the volume of business in the country. With a view to establishing a closer watch in the matters of management, investment of funds and expenditure of insurers, Government established the Department of Insurance under the authority of the Controller of Insurance and enacted the Insurance Act of 1938. The Act was extensively amended in 1950, when further controls in the interest of the policy-holders were exercised.

By the Life Insurance Ordinance of 1950 the business of life insurance passed from private hands to the Life Insurance Corporation. The Corporation entertains proposals for assurance where the object of assurance is family protection, provision for old age, or provision for payment of Estate Duty. In exceptional cases, the object of insurance is to provide security to educational trusts in respect of loans advanced for educational purposes or to provide donations to charitable institutions.

The Life Insurance Corporation was constituted by an Act in 1956. Since its establishment the Indian and foreign insurers and provident fund societies ceased to carry on life insurance business in India. However, the general insurance representing fire, marine, accident and other insurance business is kept open for private enterprise.

Under the new organisational and administrative set-up of the Life Insurance Corporation, Amravati district, was placed under the territorial jurisdiction of the Nagpur district. The total number of agents in the district was 667 on December 1956. It was 748 in 1957, 1,042 in 1958, and 663 in December 1959. The

total business proposed and completed during this period was as under :—

Period	Number of proposals	Proposed		Completed
		Sum proposed	Number of policies	Sum assured
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Rs.		Rs.
From 1-9-56 to 31-12-56 ..	435	14,19,000	240	7,62,600
1957	3,072	1,07,34,750	2,062	77,47,750
1958	3,370	1,21,57,250	3,017	1,00,67,000
1959	3,454	1,35,22,000	2,510	1,12,88,250
1960	..	..	..	..
January	38	1,25,000	1	5,000
February	227	7,08,500	31	1,23,000
March	177	8,05,000	123	6,39,500
April	242	9,08,500	128	4,45,000
Total ..	684	25,47,000	283	12.12,500*

State-aid to Agriculture.

India being primarily an agricultural country her prosperity depends to a large extent upon the productivity of land and the economic conditions of the farmers. The productivity of land, however, is limited by a number of factors such as uneconomic holdings, dependence of agriculture upon the vagaries of monsoon, etc. The factors affecting economic conditions of the agriculturist, are low productivity of soil, inefficient and unskilled labour, etc. These factors together render the agriculturist incapable of improving agriculture solely by his own efforts. What he needs most is financial assistance.

The need for financing agriculture was realised very early and assistance was given from time to time during the pre-British period. Under the British rule a number of Tagai Acts providing finance were passed. But the agriculturist began to receive active assistance only after the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884 were passed. The former Act is broadly concerned with long-term finance and the latter with short-term accommodation.

Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

Loans under this Act are granted to cultivators for works of improvement on land, such as construction of wells and tanks, preparation of land for irrigation, drainage, reclamation, enclosures, etc. The Collector, Prant Officers and Mamlatdars are authorised to grant loans to the extent of 8½ per cent of the total amount of loans to be disbursed, i.e., 16 pies per rupee per annum. In particular cases, however, the Government may

*These figures indicate the totals for 1960 for the months from January to April.

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BANKING AND FINANCE.

reduce the rate of interest or may not charge any interest. The loan is given where the grantor is satisfied as to the security with a margin of safety. Generally immovable property is demanded as security against loans to be advanced under this Act.

State-aid to Agriculture.

This Act was in force in one form or another from 1871. Loans under it were chiefly given for the sinking of wells, the eradication of shrubs and deep-rooted weeds from fields and the making of embankments. In the thirty years from 1877-1907 a sum of only two lakhs of rupees was advanced, and of this Rs. 30,000 were given out in the famine years of 1896-97 and 1897-98 and almost a lakh in 1899-1900 and 1900-01. In 1908 also, as the 1907 rains were a partial failure, it was thought well to stimulate the demand for labour by this means and about Rs. 83,500 were advanced. Barring these years the average yearly amount advanced to cultivators in ordinary times was only Rs. 2,631.

Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884.

Loans under this Act are granted to holders of arable lands for purchase of seed, fodder, agricultural stock or implements. They are also granted to hire cattle, to rebuild houses destroyed by calamities, to meet the monetary needs of cultivators while engaged in work on land or to achieve some such purpose. The rate of interest, the type of security and the terms and conditions for the grant of loan are the same as under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883.

This Act was applied to Berar in 1891. Loans granted under this Act were not considerable. In the famine years (1896 to 1898) about Rs 84,000 were distributed and in 1908 Rs. 13,375. But apart from these exceptional cases the average yearly amount was hardly over Rs. 1,000.

"Many reasons were given for the comparative unpopularity of the Government loans, the most common being perhaps, the delays connected with the system. To this may be added a few factors, which elsewhere also operate against the success of tagai. Government occupied an infinitely stronger position than the ordinary creditor, and insisted upon prompt repayment; the latter, moreover, would lend for marriages and the like ceremonies which made indebtedness a social necessity to the average cultivator, and he was naturally charged of doing so when the land was already pledged to a far stronger claimant; hence the cultivator who might need such a loan was careful not to do anything which might endanger his chance of getting it."*

What seemed necessary was an improved system of distribution. In the Melghat area especially, the cultivation was more backward, and the Korkus were heavily indebted and paid most extortionate interest on their scanty loans. Such conditions ruled for a very long time in Amravati district. During the mean time the Government assistance was continued without involving any important change in the distribution.

*Amravati District Gazetteer (year 1911), page 225-6.

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State-aid to Agriculture.

With the advent of Independence, the agricultural sector of the district economy received top priority as far as Government assistance was considered, and necessary changes were introduced in the distribution of tagai loans. The amount of loans was also increased with a view to stepping up agricultural production. Thus, besides the above two Acts (*viz.*, the Agriculturists' Loans Act and Land Improvement Loans Act), the Government also extended loans and subsidies to agriculturists under the Grow More Food campaign launched by the Government.

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

BANKING AND FINANCE.

State-aid to Agriculture.

TABLE No. 15

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE, DISTRICT AMRAVATI

Particulars (1)	Year (2)	Loans Under Land *Improvement* Loans Act, 1883 (3)	Loans Under Agriculturists' *Loans* Act, 1884 (4)	Financial Assistance Under Grow More Food Campaign: Loans (5A)	Financial Assistance Under Grow More Food Campaign: Cash Subsides (5B)	Any other Loans (*For project area*) (6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Applications pending at beginning of the year.	1952-53	968	573	184	..	..
	1953-54	1,054	548	135	..	..
	1954-55	2,042	642	196	..	..
	1955-56	1,087	822	275	..	..
	1956-57	761	110	143	..	..
	1957-58	50	20	10	..	..
	1958-59	236	134	14	..	..
	1959-60	45	25	11	..	..
	1960-61	325	175	40	..	..
	1961-62	18	12	2	..	..
2. Amount involved	1952-53	25,150	57,300	1,84,000	..	..
	1953-54	10,700	50,300	1,35,000	..	..
	1954-55	40,400	60,400	1,96,000	..	..
	1955-56	1,08,700	87,200	2,75,000	..	..
	1956-57	7,600	1,10,000	1,43,000	..	..
	1957-58	5,000	1,00,000	1,50,000	..	..
	1958-59	23,600	1.15,000	1,40,000	..	..
	1959-60	45,000	1,75,000	1,10,000	..	..

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	1960-61	3,25,000	1,25,000	1,40,000	..	..
	1961-62	18,000	12,000	20,000	..	..
3. No. of applications received during the year.	1952-53	6,565	2,735	376	..	..
	1953-54	8,866	6,147	837	..	..
	1954-55	8,153	6,132	735	..	..
	1955-56	4,429	3,723	487	..	..
	1956-57	5,691	3,215	345	..	..
	1957-58	2,837	2,169	175	..	..
	1958-59	3,413	1,387	158	..	..
	1959-60	7,738	4,249	632	..	843
	1960-61	6,135	2,630	547	..	1,157
	1961-62	5,195	3,289	749	..	1,345
4. Total amount applied for by these applicants.	1952-53	9,51,150	9,27,000	13,45,000	..	..
	1953-54	4,42,300	8,31,700	20,23,500	..	..
	1954-55	4,84,600	12,32,600	17,35,000	..	..
	1955-56	8,84,900	5,44,600	15,48,000	..	..
	1956-57	1,03,800	3,21,500	6,90,000	..	..
	1957-58	1,84,900	6,50,700	19,75,400	..	..
	1958-59	2,82,600	4,95,000	15,80,000	..	..
	1959-60	8,97,000	15,49,000	12,64,000	..	84,300
	1960-61	9,27,000	12,52,000	15,75,000	..	1,45,500
	1961-62	13,58,500	16,44,500	9,74,500	..	2,07,300
5. No. of applications sanctioned ..	1952-53	3,255	1,745	323	..	..
	1953-54	5,568	3,707	630	..	..
	1954-55	6,853	3,247	579	..	..
	1955-56	3,971	2,372	431	..	..
	1956-57	3,503	3,185	375	..	..
	1957-58	2,235	2,000	150	..	..
	1958-59	2,160	1,336	147	..	..
	1959-60	6,943	3,163	470	..	757
	1960-61	6,135	2,464	580	..	1,052
	1961-62	4,652	2,949	603	..	1,053

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

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TABLE No. 15—*contd.*

Particulars	Year	Loans Under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883	Loans Under Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884	Financial Assistance Under Grow More Food Campaign		Any other Loans (For project area)
				Loans	Cash Subsidies	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5A)	(5B)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
6. Total amount asked for in 5 above ..	1952-53	5,26,250	7,35,800	11,24,000	..	..
	1953-54	3,39,000	8,23,000	20,28,000	..	..
	1954-55	4,38,750	11,75,400	18,25,600	..	..
	1955-56 . ..	9,80,400	4,35,500	17,33,100	..	..
	1956-57	75,400	3,75,100	7,21,500	..	..
	1957-58	1,29,000	6,35,000	19,22,000	..	..
	1958-59	1,37,000	5,47,000	14,87,000	..	..
	1959-60	6,37,000	16,08,000	12,45,000	..	97,000
	1960-61	9,45,000	12,50,000	15,74,000	..	1,85,000
	1961-62	12,13,500	13,36,000	7,47,500	..	2,03,500
7. Total amount actually sanctioned during the year.	1952-53	4,43,360	6,53,448	9,00,572	..	..
	1953-54 .. .	2,34,994	7,20,067	17,39,560	..	..
	1954-55	3,94,625	10,46,302	15,60,231	..	..
	1955-56	8,89,860	3,30,275	15,60,797	..	..
	1956-57	27,635	3,19,099	6,26,904	..	..
	1957-58	64,178	5,10,176	17,60,231	..	..
	1958-59	79,530	4,59,950	12,10,115	..	..
	1959-60	5,24,067	14,12,072	11,81,978	..	75,700

	1960-61	7,34,235	10,10,033	13,36,460	..	1,05,250
	1961-62	10,23,050	11,20,124	6,60,456	..	1,05,350
8. Total amount actually disbursed during the year.	1952-53	4,43,360	6,53,448	9,00,572	..	..
	1953-54	2,34,994	7,20,067	17,39,560	..	..
	1954-55	3,94,625	10,46,302	15,60,231	..	..
	1955-56	8,89,860	3,30,275	15,60,797	..	..
	1956-57	27,635	3,19,099	6,26,904	..	..
	1957-58	64,178	5,10,176	17,60,231	..	..
	1958-59	79,530	4,59,950	12,10,115	..	..
	1959-60	5,24,067	14,12,072	11,81,978	..	75,700
	1960-61	7,34,235	10,10,033	13,36,460	..	1,05,250
	1961-62	10,23,050	11,20,124	6,60,456	..	1,05,350
9. Total loans repaid during the year ..	1952-53	58,885	1,94,040	5,55,890	..	..
	1953-54	2,38,013	4,47,341	22,19,788	..	..
	1954-55	1,98,159	4,43,753	8,26,555	..	..
	1955-56	2,67,951	1,23,292	4,07,273	..	..
	1956-57	4,96,041	12,62,546	15,38,461	..	..
	1957-58	3,32,645	7,54,570	8,89,273	..	..
	1958-59	2,88,820	2,13,452	6,69,058	..	..
	1959-60	50,193	56,391	2,06,726	..	..
	1960-61	4,57,623	4,93,089	6,96,335	..	22,968
	1961-62	65,431	1,22,356	1,56,797	..	7,074
10. Total loans outstanding	1952-53	5,36,867	10,64,550	20,28,848	..	..
	1953-54	5,33,573	13,37,072	22,31,109	..	..
	1954-55	7,30,039	19,39,621	27,74,637	..	..
	1955-56	25,19,677	9,10,269	39,28,161	..	..
	1956-57	4,41,863	15,76,230	30,26,504	..	..
	1957-58	5,29,933	9,57,301	38,97,462	..	..
	1958-59	5,19,237	10,23,203	44,38,519	..	..
	1959-60	10,37,049	23,22,193	25,80,306	..	75,700
	1960-61	12,34,567	23,95,435	31,45,868	..	1,57,982
	1961-62	23,45,678	42,34,088	64,16,045	..	2,54,485

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Banking, Trade and Commerce.

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State-aid to Agriculture.

TABLE No. 16

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE (CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO PURPOSE)

Purpose for which financial assistance is sanctioned	Year	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883	Loans under Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884	Financial assistance under Grow More Food Campaign	
				Loans	Cash Subsidies
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
(1) For current farm expenditure—					
(*a*) Seed	1952-53 ..	..	2,17,816	3,20,105	..
	1953-54 ..	..	2,70,135	4,96,232	..
	1954-55 ..	..	2,13,654	4,04,096	..
	1955-56 ..	..	97,467	5,27,951	..
	1956-57 ..	..	99,362	1,24,089	..
	1957-58 ..	..	1,47,512	4,95,294	..
	1958-59 ..	..	1,56,417	4,14,388	..
	1959-60 ..	..	3,53,018	2,31,252	..
	1960-61 ..	..	2,04,024	4,35,687	..
	1961-62 ..	..	2,43,584	2,67,269	..
(*b*) Fodder	1952-53 ..	..	..	..	..
	1953-54 ..	..	..	..	..
	1954-55 ..	..	..	..	.
	1955-56 ..	..	..	..	..
	1956-57 ..	..	..	..	..
	1957-58 .	..	..	..	..
	1958-59	..	..	..	..
	1959-60 ..	..	20,543	..	..
	1960-61 ..	..	..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..	..	..
(*c*) Manure	1952-53 .	..	..	2,54,567	..
	1953-54 ..	..	..	3,45,678	..
	1954-55 ..	.	..	2,25,635	..
	1955-56 ..	..	..	3,59,846	..
	1956-57 ..	.	..	87,315	..
	1957-58 ..	..	..	3,51,437	..
	1958-59 ..	..	..	2,32,927	..
	1959-60 ..	..	..	2,04,826	..
	1960-61 ..	..	1,45,300	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	1,17,500	..	..
(*d*) Farm implements	1952-53 ..	..	..	2,17,250	..
	1953-54 ..	..	..	3,20,000	..
	1954-55 ..	..	..	1,55,000	..
	1955-56 ..	..	..	15,500	..
	1956-57 ..	..	..	2,03,000	..
	1957-58 ..	..	..	62,000	..
	1958-59 ..	..	..	2,15,000	..
	1959-60 ..	..	.	..	..
	1960-61 ..	..	..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	2,09,118	..	..
(2) Purchase of draught animals.	1952-53 ..	..	3,12,170	..	..
	1953-54 ..	..	3,87,450	..	..
	1954-55 ..	..	6,37,450	..	..
	1955-56 ..	..	1,42,450	..	..
	1956-57 ..	..	1,28,300	..	..
	1957-58 ..	..	2,38,700	..	..
	1958-59 ..	..	2,27,590	..	..
	1959-60 ..	..	5,28,300	..	..
	1960-61 .	..	2,66,960	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	2,83,990	..	..

TABLE No. 16—*contd.*

Purpose for which financial assistance is sanctioned	Year	Loans under Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883	Loans under Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884	Financial assistance under Grow More Food Campaign	
				Loans	Cash Subsidies
(1)*	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
(3) Well digging and other irrigation projects.	1952-53 ..	1,30,170	..	3,45,900	..
	1953-54 ..	37,600	..	6,80,400	..
	1954-55 ..	1,24,200	..	6,10,500	..
	1955-56 ..	1,37,500	..	5,18,000	..
	1956-57 ..	..	..	4,00,000	..
	1957-58 .	..	..	7,10,500	..
	1958-59 ..	..	..	5,00,800	..
	1959-60 ..	..	..	5,30,900	..
	1960-61 .	..	..	4,63,400	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..	82,550	..
(4) Land improvement	1952-53 ..	3,13,18	..	..	..
	1953-54 ..	1,97,395	..	..	..
	1954-55 ..	2,75,424	..	..	..
	1955-56 ..	7,52,365	..	..	..
	1956-57 ..	27,630	.	..	..
	1957-58 ..	64,175	..	..	..
	1958-59 ..	79,538	..	..	..
	1959-60 ..	5,24,060	..	..	..
	1960-61 ..	7,34,237	..	..	..
	1961-62 .	10,23,055 0	..	..	..
(5) Consumption ..	..	..	..	..	..
(6) Other purposes .	1952-53 ..	..	1,23,462	..	..
	1953-54 ..	..	92,482	.	..
; Weedings.	1954-55 ..	..	1,95,198	..	..
	1955-56 ..	..	90,358	..	..
	1956-57 ..	..	91,437	..	..
	1957-58 ..	..	1,23,964	..	..
	1958-59 ..	..	75,943	.	..
	1959-60 ..	..	2,59,811	..	..
	1960-61 ..	.	1,35,149	.	..
	1961-62 ..	..	1,20,432	..	..
II Construction and repairs of houses. (Flood affected).	1959-60 .	..	2,70,400	..	..
	1960-61 ..	..	2,58,600	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	1,45,500	..	..
III Horticultural Development Scheme.	1960-61 ..	..	..	3,37,373	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..	1,87,450	..
IV Construction and repairs of houses under NAL Act.	1959-60 ..	..	..	..	..
	1960-61 ..	..	..	..	..
	1961-62 ..	..	..	..	..
V Loans to persons whose horses died of South African Horse Sickness under NAL Act.	1960-61 .	..	..	..	..

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TABLE No. 17

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Time-lag between date of application and date of sanction (1)		Number of applications (2)	Amount applied for (3)	Amount sanctioned (4)
			Rs.	Rs.
Up to 2 months		Nil	Nil	Nil
2-3 months	1952-53 ..	1,775	7,95,350	6,65,794
	1953-54 ..	3,325	10,63,334	8,98,207
	1954-55 ..	3,561	11,46,584	10,00,386
	1955-56 ..	2,258	10,49,668	9,26,978
	1956-57 ..	2,355	3,90,668	3,24,546
	1957-58 ..	1,463	8,95,334	7,78,195
	1958-59 ..	1,215	7,23,668	5,83,198
	1959-60 ..	2,834	8,95,000	7,98,455
	1960-61 ..	2,560	9,88,500	7,96,496
	1961-62 ..	2,315	8,75,000	7,27,245
3-4 months	1952-53 ..	1,184	5,30,234	4,43,862
	1953-54 ..	2,194	7,08,890	5,98,804
	1954-55 ..	2,374	7 64,390	6,66,924
	1955-56 ..	1,472	6,99,778	6,17,986
	1956-57 ..	1,570	2,60,444	2,16,364
	1957-58 ..	974	5,96,890	5,18,798
	1958-59 ..	810	4,82,444	3,88,465
	1959-60 ..	2,833	8,96,333	7,98,454
	1960-61 ..	2,557	9,58,500	7,56,494
	1961-62 ..	2,200	7,08,500	6,31,735
4-5 months	1952-53 .	2,050	10,00,000	8,50,000
	1953-54 ..	4,000	13,60,000	11,60,000
	1954-55 ..	4,500	15,00,000	13,20,000
	1955-56 ..	2,400	13,00,000	12,00,000
	1956-57 ..	3,000	5,00,000	4,20,000
	1957-58 ..	1,000	11,00,000	10,00,000
	1958-59 ..	1,200	9,00,000	7,26,000
	1959-60 ..	4,439	15,12,667	14,11,008
	1960-61 ..	4,000	18,57,000	15,20,500
	1961-62 ..	4,200	19,00,000	14,65,000
5-6 months	1952-53 ..	314	60,466	37,725
	1953-54 ..	386	57,776	37,610
	1954-55 ..	244	28,776	13,848
	1955-56 ..	544	99,554	35,968
	1956-57 ..	138	20,888	12,728
	1957-58 ..	948	93,776	37,592
	1958-59 ..	418	64,888	50,930
	1959-60 ..	1,227	2,85,000	1,85,900
	1960-61 ..	1,114	1,50,000	1,12,488
	1961-62 ..	542	1,17,000	65,000
6 months or more	Nil ..	Nil	Nil	Nil

TABLE No. 18

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Time-lag between date of sanction and date of disbursement (1)		Number of applications (2)	Amount sanctioned (3)	Amount disbursed (4)
			Rs.	Rs.
Up to 2 months		Nil	Nil	Nil
2-3 months	1952-53	1,775	6,65,794	6,65,794
	1953-54	3,325	8,98,207	8,98,207
	1954-55	3,561	10,00,386	10,00 386
	1955-56	2,258	9,26,978	9 26,978
	1956-57	2,355	3,24,546	3,24,546
	1957-58	1,463	7,78,195	7,78,195
	1958-59	1,215	5,83,198	5,83,198
	1959-60	2,834	7,98,455	7,98,455
	1960-61	2,560	7,96,496	7,96,496
	1961-62	2,315	7,27,245	7,27,245
3-4 months	1952-53	1,184	4,43,862	4,43,862
	1953-54	2,194	5,98,804	5,98,804
	1954-55	2,374	6,66,924	6,66,924
	1955-56	1,472	6,17,986	6,17,986
	1956-57	1,570	2,16,364	2,16,364
	1957-58	974	5,18,708	5,18,798
	1958-59	810	3,88,465	3,88,465
	1959-60	2,833	7,98,454	7,98,454
	1960-61	2,557	7,56,494	7,56,494
	1961-62	2,200	6,31 735	6,31,735
4-5 months	1952-53	2,050	8,50,000	8,50,000
	1953-54	4,000	11,60,000	11,60,000
	1954-55	4,500	13,20,000	13,20,000
	1955-56	2,400	12,00,000	12,00,000
	1956-57	3,000	4,20,000	4,20,000
	1957-58	1,000	10,00,000	10,00,000
	1958-59	1,200	7,26,000	7,26,000
	1959-60	4,439	14,11,008	14,11,008
	1960-61	4,000	15,20,500	15,20,500
	1961-62	4,200	14,65,000	14,65,000
5-6 months	1952-53	314	37,725	37,725
	1953-54	386	37,610	37,610
	1954-55	244	13,848	13,848
	1955-56	544	35,968	35,968
	1956-57	138	12,728	12,729
	1957-58	948	37,592	37,592
	1958-59	418	50,930	50,930
	1959-60	1,227	1,85,900	1,85,900
	1960-61	1,114	1,12,488	1,12,488
	1961-62	542	85,000	85,000
6 months or more		Nil	Nil	Nil

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The foregoing tables reveal that though the number of applications received by the Government does not show any appreciable increase over a decade from 1952-53 to 1962-63, the demand for loans by the agriculturists has increased considerably except for a short period from 1956-57 to 1958-59. The increase was more appreciable especially after 1959-60, when the sums disbursed under both the Acts were Rs. 10,23,050 and Rs. 11,20,124, respectively. The amount spent under the Grow More Food schemes, in much the same way, increased to Rs. 9,74,500 in 1961-62 although during the previous years there was no uniformity of trend, either for increase or for decrease. Secondly, the total amount sanctioned by the Government was far less than that demanded. For example, in 1961-62, while amounts demanded by the applicants totalled Rs. 15,58,500 under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883 and Rs. 16,44,500 under the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884, the amounts sanctioned and disbursed under these Acts were Rs. 10,23,050 and Rs. 11,20,124, respectively. One of the reasons why the Government did not adequately meet with the demand was that loans were not either repaid in time or repaid in full. The figure of loans outstanding especially after 1958-59, is an evidence in point. The total dues were greater under the Agriculturists' Loans Act than under the Land Improvement Loans Act, and greater under the Grow More Food scheme than under the Land Improvement Loans Act. It will also be seen from the above tables that the loans under Land Improvement Loans Act were given mainly for carrying out improvements on land throughout this period except in 1952-53 and 1954-55 when part of these loans were also granted for digging wells and other irrigation projects. Loans under Agriculturists' Loans Act, on the other hand, were given for various purposes specified in the tables, such as current farm expenditure including expenditure for securing fodder and manure and for purchasing of draught animals. In the same way, financial assistance under Grow More Food campaign was extended to agriculturists for procurement of seeds, manure, and farm implements, and for well digging and other irrigation projects. Some loans under this scheme were also given for horticultural development in 1960-61 and 1961-62.

During this period (from 1952-53 to 1962-63) loans under Project Areas were given only from 1959-60 to 1961-62. They were given under the Non-agricultural Loans Act for construction and repair of houses and also as a relief to those whose horses died of the South African Horse Sickness.

It is necessary not only to make adequate grants of tagai but also to make them in time. In this district the actual disbursement of the loans was started three months after they were sanctioned. Although the interval between the date of application and the date of sanction or between the date of sanction and the date of disbursement was not short, there was no unusual delay that could adversely affect agricultural operations. Another significant feature of the grant of tagai

State-aid to Agriculture.

loans was that the bulk of them represented short-term loans having a duration of less than five years. The large amounts of loans were given for periods shorter than a year, and more than half the amount of the total loans was given for a period less than four years.

The two major grounds of rejection of applications for loans were (i) lack of security or adequate security, and (ii) old dues to Government. On the score of the former as many as 4,488 applications involving an amount of Rs. 9,42,575 were rejected, while on the latter 19,323 applications involving an amount of Rs. 28,12,075 were rejected.

Tagai loans for the purchase of seed and weeding operations and for Grow More Food under the Agriculturists' Loans Act, are advanced against collateral security, jointly or severally. But for loans for ordinary and Grow More Food requirements under the Land Improvement Loans Act both security of land and collateral security are necessary. Generally 75 per cent of the loans are advanced against security of land and 25 per cent are advanced against collateral security. The ratio of the value of security to the total amounts of loans advanced is 2:1.

Formerly the rate of interest on loans distributed on ordinary tagai advance under Agriculturists' Loans Act and the Land Improvement Loans Act was Rs. 7·81 per hundred per annum. From August 1958 the rate of interest on tagai loans under these Acts was reduced to Rs. 5·50 per hundred per annum.

Similarly, different rates of interest were charged for loans under Grow More Food scheme. Thus for loans under Agriculturists' Loans Act the rate charged was Rs. 4·66 per hundred per annum but for loans under Land Improvement Loans Act the rate of interest was Rs. 7·81 per hundred per annum. But from 1st April 1960 interest on all loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act or the Grow More Food scheme is charged at the rate of Rs. 4·50 per hundred per annum or in default at the penal rate of Rs. 6.00 per hundred per annum.

State-aid to Industries.

With a view to encouraging and developing small-scale and cottage industries the Government of Maharashtra has set up the Department of Industries. The department gives financial assistance to these industries under various schemes besides the "State-aid to Industries under Rules 1935." Under this scheme loans are granted to industries for (1) construction of buildings, godowns, warehouses, wells, tanks, etc., (2) purchase of land for buildings, (3) purchase of and erection of plant and machinery, (4) purchase of raw materials and (5) use as working capital.

The important small-scale and cottage industries in Amravati district were ginning and pressing works, oil ghanis, brick-making, carpentry, dyeing, printing, etc. Under the scheme

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mentioned above these industries received financial assistance from the State as given below:—

Year (1)	Amount (in Rs.) (2)	Number of parties to whom financial assistance was granted (3)
1957-58	33,865	41
1958-59	39,320	48
1959-60	28,760	24
1960-61	13,200	28
1961-62	4,300	14
1962-63	15,000	2 Advanced by the Bank of Maharashtra.
1963-64	7,000	1 Advanced by the Bank of Maharashtra.

Various other schemes were in operation in Amravati district during the last decade under which financial assistance was rendered to individuals and their co-operatives. In 1960, the Government of Maharashtra passed the Maharashtra State-aid to Industries Act, to regulate grant of loans to small-scale and cottage industries in the State. Under the Act cottage industry is defined as an industry carried on by an artisan in or near his home with capital not exceeding Rs. 25,000 The Act defined small-scale industry as an industry with capital assets not exceeding the value of Rs. five lakhs, regard being had to the nature of undertaking and the number of persons employed therein. The loans granted under the Act were repayable by instalments together with interest from the date of the actual advance of the loan.

Subsequently, the Government passed the Maharashtra State-aid to Industries Rules. 1961, with a view to granting loans to small-scale or cottage industry for the following purposes:—

(1) Purchase of land required for an industry;

(2) Construction of buildings or worksheds, godowns, warehouses, wells, etc. necessary for industry;

(3) Purchase of tools, equipment, appliances, plant and machines;

(4) Erection of plant and machinery;

(5) Purchase of raw materials or for other use as working capital otherwise than as cash credit; and

(6) Tiding over initial difficulties or bottlenecks.

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State-aid to Industries.

Under the Rules the following authorities were entitled to grant loans up to the amount specified against each of them as given below:—

Authority	*Amount*
	Rs.
Secretary to Government, Industries and Labour Department.	1,00,000
Director of Industries ...	25,000
Deputy Director of Industries ...	5,000
Assistant Director of Industries ...	2,000

Of these loans, those which are granted to the extent of rupees thousand are to be secured by personal bond of the applicant, and in case of the applicant being a firm, by personal bonds of all partners. Loans exceeding Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000 are to be secured by one or more personal sureties.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad the Rules governing the grants are administered and executed by the Zilla Parishad itself. During 1962-63, an amount of Rs. 14,333 was granted as loan and subsidy to 18 parties by the Zilla Parishad in Amravati district.

The following statement gives the expenditure on the Schemes included in the Third Five-Year Plan and implemented through the Zilla Parishad, Amravati:—

Name of the Scheme	*Total expenditure up to 31-3-1963*
(1)	(2)
	Rs.
(1) Grant-in-aid to Industrial Co-operatives for management expenses	4,996
(2) Organisation of Handicraft Co-operative Societies in Maharashtra State.	1,000
(3) Scheme for financial assistance to Industrial Co-operatives for the purchase of tools and equipment.	1,000 Subsidy.
(4) Scheme for financial assistance to Industrial Co-operatives for construction of godowns.	..
(5) Scheme for grant of financial assistance to Industrial Co-operatives of Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and Backward Class persons.	..

Maharashtra State Financial Corporation.

Financial assistance to small-scale and cottage industries is also rendered through this agency. Originally known as the Bombay State Financial Corporation, this institution was set up in 1963 under the State Financial Corporation Act of 1951. Now its activities are restricted only to Maharashtra State.

The Corporation provides financial assistance to medium and small-scale industrial concerns in the State for purposes of purchase of land, plant and machinery and other assets, for

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renovation and expansion of existing units and for the development of new ones. It considers applications from small-scale units under the State-aid to Industries Rules for aid ranging between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 75,000 and in exceptional cases up to Rs. 1 lakh. The rate of interest for loans advanced is 6½ per cent. The period of loan is decided on merit but is not generally more than ten years. The amount of loan is to the extent of 59 per cent of the net value of the fixed assets consisting of land, building, plant and machinery.

Since the reorganisation of States, the small-scale units in Amravati district have received the following assistance from the Corporation:—

Year	*Amount*	*Number of Parties*
(1)	(2)	(3)
	Rs.	
1959-60	30,000	1
1961-62	2,50,000	1
1962-63	52,500	2

Financial Assistance Through State Bank of India.

Besides the Corporation, the small-scale industries can also secure financial assistance from the State Bank of India. In Amravati district such industries received Rs. 1,13,000 during 1960-61 and Rs. 93,000 during the subsequent year. Each year there were four parties which received such assistance.

Joint-stock Companies.

In the absence of any systematic records it is difficult to trace the gradual evolution of the joint-stock companies in Amravati district. As elsewhere they appear to have developed out of the partnership or proprietary type of concerns. The latter, as a matter of fact, required a good deal of capital. not easy for a single individual to supply. Credit, too, was not obtainable unless complete security could be provided to the creditor. Partnership was even worse form than this, for it depended only on a smooth co-ordination amongst the members concerned. The joint-stock companies, as they exist today, therefore, came up as a more suitable form of business organisation through which instability in business could be reduced to a great extent.

In Amravati district there are two types of joint-stock companies: the private companies and the public companies. The Companies Act of 1956 described the former as one which restricts the right to transfer its share, if any, limits the number of its members to fifty and prohibits any invitation to the public to subscribe for any shares in. or debentures of, the company. The Act further lays down that "no company, association or partnership consisting of more than 20 persons shall be formed for the purpose of carrying on any other business that has for its object the acquisition of gain by the company, association or partnership, or by the individual members, thereof, unless it is registered as a company". Registration, thus, was made compulsory for these companies.

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Joint-stock Companies.

By 1958, there were thirty-six registered private limited companies in Amravati district. Most of them were small undertakings. Their work was considerably facilitated when the principle of limited liability was extended to them. A classification of these companies according to the nature of their operations showed that of the 36 joint-stock companies, 15 companies were working in the field of agriculture, six were transport undertakings, three were manufacturing, two general trading and eight were producing motion pictures.

The capital requirements of these companies do not appear to be large. In 1958, the aggregate authorised capital of these companies was Rs. 1,09,63,000 while the paid-up capital amounted to Rs. 47,31,349. In addition the reserves of the companies amounting to Rs. 1,06,489 also formed a substantial part of their capital. These companies raise capital by way of floating non-transferable shares and debentures. The amount involved in the debentures issued stood at Rs. 25,76,124. These companies, however, pay a rate of interest higher than the one paid by public limited companies with a view to attracting capital.

Public Limited Companies.

The number of Public Limited Companies in Amravati district, other than the joint-stock banks was small. In 1958, there were only 6 companies of this type. Most of them were established in the post-war period.

These companies engage themselves in various kinds of productive activities with a view to obtaining profits. As a rule, they require large capital due to the extent of their operation. They use it for acquisition and maintenance of plant, equipment, buildings and other fixed assets, for holding current assets in the form of inventories of finished or partly finished products as well as raw materials and stores required for production. Capital is also required to be used as current assets and accounts receivable, etc. Capital is raised by floating shares and by issuing debentures The shares are transferable or negotiable by law.

SECTION II — TRADE

TRADE.

Trade Routes.

At the time of the publication of the old District Gazetteer (1911), the Bombay-Nagpur-Howrah line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway which entered the district on the south-west and left it on the south-east, formed the backbone of the system of communications in Berar and in this district. This line was opened for traffic in 1866.

The Bombay Nagpur-Howrah line has a run of 72.420 km. (45 miles) through the district and has at present nine stations in this stretch *viz*. Kurum, Takli, Badnera. Timtala, Malkhed, Chandur, Depore, Dhamangaon and Talni. Of these, Badnera. Chandur and Dhamangaon are important places where there is considerable goods traffic.

The Amravati-Badnera branch line with a run of about 9.956 km. (6 miles) was opened in 1871. It is a single line and has traffic in cotton during the season.

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Trade Routes.

Two more railway lines were subsequently opened. The Murtizapur-Achalpur narrow gauge line was opened in 1912-13. It has a run of 4.024 km. (2½ miles) in the district, the important stations on the line being Daryapur and Anjangaon. The Purna-Akola-Khandwa meter gauge line serves the Melghat forest area. It was opened in January 1961 and it has a run of 5.632 km. (3½ miles) through Amravati district.

The system of rail communications is supplemented by the road-ways that criss-cross the district. The Bombay-Dhulia-Bhusawal-Nagpur-Calcutta National Highway passes through Badnera, Amravati and Nandgaon. The Burhanpur-Amravati-Chanda State Highway runs through the forest area of the district and connects Dharni, Achalpur and Amravati. The Amravati-Multai State Highway runs through Morshi and Warud. Besides, the Akola-Akot-Betul State Highway, the Multai-Wardha Road and the Amravati-Chandur (Railway) Road connect various trade places. A number of arterial roads provide for internal communication and goods and passenger traffic. The district has thus a road system connecting most of the important towns and centres of trade in the district.

Imports.

The chief articles of import in the district are cloth, iron and steel goods, building materials, grocery, stationery goods, drugs and medicines, implements and appliances, hardware, rice, wheat, chillis, betel-nuts, spices, tobacco and other useful and miscellaneous articles, e.g., metal utensils, crockery etc.

Amravati district, because of its position and transport facilities, is a distributing centre for the adjoining areas of Vidarbha, Marathwada, etc. A number of wholesale merchants, trade at Amravati in cotton, hardware, grains, etc.

The district has a rich land which yields a variety of crops. The main agricultural commodities produced in the district are cotton, jowar and groundnut. It also imports these grains from other districts to supplement its production. Wheat is brought to Amravati from Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh ; grain from Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Punjab and groundnut from Saurashtra. Amravati has a negligible production of rice and imports it from Madhya Pradesh. Tobacco is brought from Gujarat and Kanpur and besides the district, is distributed in Chanda, Yeotmal, Betul and Wardha Chillis come from Nagpur, spices from Orissa and Malabar and betel-nuts from Ratnagiri.

The spinning and weaving mills at Badnera and Achalpur consume only a fraction of the cotton assembled at Amravati The district depends on imports for cloth. Large quantities of mill-cloth from Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, saris from Ichalkaranji, Malegaon, Nagpur, Madurai, etc., are assembled at Amravati. The wholesale cloth merchants at Amravati have formed a trade association. They carry operations in Vidarbha districts, Betul, Bilaspur, Bhopal, Jabalpur and Marathwada region.

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Stationery articles and books are brought from Bombay and Nagpur. Paper mainly comes from Titaghar. Presentation articles come from Delhi and Mysore; provision and toilet articles mainly from Bombay; cutlery from Akola, Bombay and Nagpur and footwear and leather goods from Kanpur, Calcutta and Bombay. Hardware is brought from Bombay and Ludhiana. Ayurvedic medicines are brought from Panvel, allopathic drugs come mainly from Baroda and Bombay.

Exports.

The composition of exports has changed substantially during the last five decades. This is due to the change in the structure and variety of production in the district itself. About exports it is stated* "that cotton (ginned and pressed) is an overwhelmingly important commodity of export, accounting in one form or other for three quarters of the total value. The export of manufactured cotton was practically confined to the mills at Badnera, the work of local Koshtis and other weavers seldom spreading much beyond their own neighbourhood. Besides cotton the other exports were cotton-seed, oil-cake, hay and grass, jowar, hides and skins, other oil-seeds, bones and other articles." Now, oranges and groundnut oil also form important items of the exports of this district, since they are grown in plenty here.

Cotton.

Amravati is a large centre for cotton trade where cotton is assembled from the adjoining districts as well. In 1960-61, 1,212,540 bales of cotton were assembled at Amravati from the district itself and from the various other districts, *viz.*, Yeotmal, Nagpur, Chanda, Nemar, Akola, Buldhana, Wardha, Chindwada and Hoshangabad. Of these, about 7,000 bales were used by the local mills. The rest was sent to places all over the country and mainly to the textile centres of Bombay, Sholapur, Madras and Ahmedabad.

Cotton-Seed.

Amravati district has a number of ginning and pressing factories at various places, *viz.*, Amravati, Dhamangaon Warud, Anjangaon Surji, Achalpur, Banosa, Chandur Railway, Pathrot and Karanjagaon. Cotton-seed comes as a bye-product of the cotton ginning factories. Cotton-seed, being a valuable cattle feed and its oil being useful in the preparation of medicines, is in great demand in Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Saurashtra.

Oil and oil-cake.

Amravati district has a large production of groundnut, amounting to about 8,016 tons (8.144.256 m. tons) annually. The oil-crushing factories in the district are located at Dhamangaon, Badnera, Chandur Railway, Amravati and Achalpur. Oil in the district is mostly exported to Jabalpur. The vegetable ghee-factory at Badnera serves the needs of the district and the surrounding area. Oil-cake, a bye-product in oil mills, is exported to United Kingdom, where it is in good demand. There are *dal* mills at Amravati, Badnera and Dhamangaon. Besides, pulses, mainly tur and mung, from the district and the adjoining areas are exported to Bombay, Calcutta and Madras.

* Amravati District Gazetteer (1911), p. 249.

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Jowar.

Other Products.

Jowar is exported to other districts of the State and to Gujarat.

During and after the World War II a number of factories came up in the vicinity of Amravati. Some of them are engaged in the manufacture of agricultural implements, aluminium and brass-ware, iron and steel goods, spare parts of machinery and so on. They are sure to enter the export schedule of the district in due course of time.

Wholesale Trade.

Cotton is the principal item of wholesale trade in Amravati district, as it holds an important place in agricultural production. According to the Season and Crop Report (1960-61) the area under cotton stood at 338,339.835 hectares (635,407 acres) while the total cereals accounted for 244,290.330 hectares (603,186 acres) Of the cereals jowar alone occupied 185,101.605 hectares (457,041 acres) while wheat accounted for 42,211.125 hectares (104,225 acres). Next in order were pulses and other agricultural crops. The main commodities that enter the wholesale trade are cotton, cotton-seed, oil-cake, jowar, wheat tur and oil. Amravati, Chandur Railway, Dhamangaon, Achalpur, Daryapur, Anjangaon and Warud are the principal centres of wholesale trade. A net-work of rail and road communications connects these centres of trade with the outlying agricultural area.

Cotton.

Of all the centres of cotton trade Amravati has long since continued to be the largest. In fact Amravati is the largest cotton market in the whole of Asia.

The wholesale trade centres in the district for cotton and their annual turnover for the year 1960-61 are given below:—

Name of the Centre		*Turnover in bales*
Amravati	...	155,732
Dhamangaon	...	37,873
Anjangaon	...	22,658
Warud	...	21,621
Achalpur	..	19,977
Daryapur	...	8,676
Chandur Railway	...	2,872

The cotton produced in the district and brought from Yeotmal, Wardha, Akola and Nagpur districts is assembled at these markets. It is carried to place of assembly in carts or trucks by the cultivators themselves or by small traders. Cotton is auctioned to the buyers, the commission agents (*adtyas*) helping to settle the transaction. Amravati cotton is in great demand outside and is exported to the mill centres of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Cochin.

The customary market charges and other charges which include cess, *adat*, weighment, municipal tax, octroi and toll tax come to about Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per cart. The approximate number of merchants operating at the Amravati market is 65 and about 20 at each of the other market places.

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Cotton trade is brisk from November to February and dull from March to June.

Cotton Seed.

Cotton-seed is bye-product in the cotton ginning factories. The wholesale markets for cotton-seed are Amravati, Chandur Railway, Dhamangaon, Daryapur, Anjangaon, Achalpur and Warud. The total annual turnover at all these markets was valued at Rs. 43,10,532 in 1960-61. Cotton-seed is a valuable food, especially for the milch cattle, and is in great demand. It is exported to Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Saurashtra. Trade is brisk between November and February when cotton is ginned in factories. Various market charges, which include *hamali*, weighment, *adat*, etc., amount to Rs. 11 per 100 bags. The approximate number of merchants at Amravati is 25 and about 5 at each of the other market places. The price per quintal varies between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40.

Oil-Cake.

The wholesale trade centres for oil-cake are Amravati, Dhamangaon and Chandur Railway, where oil mills are situated. The oil-cake is stored in the godowns of the oil mills.

Amravati district has an area of 18,352.980 hectares (45,316 acres) under groundnuts and 2,980.395 hectares (7,359 acres) under seasamum. Oil-cake from groundnut, therefore features mainly in the wholesale trade. The cake is locally known as *dhep*. The turnover of quality oil-cake was 16,653 bags in 1960-61 and of inferior oil-cake 150,630 bags*. The value of the former variety was Rs 24 per bag and of the latter Rs. 16. Small traders assemble oil-cake in the market where it is auctioned. The customary market charges include *adat*, cartage, terminal tax, etc. which amount to Rs. 2.40 per bag. The number of merchants at the various centres are 40 at Amravati, seven at Dhamangaon and three at Achalpur. Oil-cake is exported first to Bombay and from there to the United Kingdom where it is in good demand.

Grains.

Of grains, jowar, *tur* and wheat are the chief commodities of wholesale trade. The wholesale trade centres are Amravati, Dhamangaon, Achalpur, Morshi and Chandur. The turnover at these centres was as follows in 1960-61.—

—	Jowar		Tur	
	Bags (1)	Value in Rs. (2)	Bags (3)	Value in Rs. (4)
1 Amravati	1,00,000	32,50,000	3,00,000	50,000
2. Dhamangaon .. .	50,000	16,25,000	1,00,000	20,000
3. Achalpur	30,000	9,75,000	20,000	10.000
4. Morshi..	30,000	9,75,000	25,000	5 000
5. Chandur Railway ..	25,000	8,12,000	25,000	10,000
Total ..	2,35,000	76,37,000	4,70,000	95,000

*Each bag of $\frac{3}{4}$th quintal.

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Grains.

(1)	Wheat (A) Quantity in quintals (5)	Value in Rs. (6)
1. Amravati	8,796	40,24,708
2. Dhamangaon	991	54,500
3. Achalpur	There are no regulated grain markets at these places	
4. Morshi		
5. Chandur Railway ..		
6. Daryapur	2,812	1,40,600

Grain brought in carts is assembled from the outlying agricultural areas by the agriculturists in the yard and then auctioned to the traders. The customary market charges include weighment, commission, *dalali*, tax, etc., and amount to Rs. 1.30 per cart. The villagers store their grain in *kanagis* or *pevs*, i.e., pits. In towns it is stored in godowns either owned or hired. The period from December to March is the brisk season for business. Jowar is exported to Gujarat and Kolhapur; tur to Gujarat, Madras and Uttar Pradesh and wheat to Saurashtra.

Oil.

Edible oil features as an important commodity of wholesale trade, the centres being Amravati, Chandur and Dhamangaon. Oil is mostly exported to Jabalpur.

Regulated Markets.

The Central Provinces and Berar Agricultural Produce Markets Act, 1935 and the Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Produce Markets (Amendment) Act, 1954, regulate the marketing of agricultural commodities, *viz*., wheat, jowar, groundnut, *til*, etc. The large cotton trade in this tract has necessitated separate legislation for its control. The Central Provinces Cotton Market Act, IX of 1932, as amended in 1937 and the Berar Cotton Rules of 1942, regulate the cotton trade in the district. All the transactions pertaining to the sale and purchase of commodities brought under the regulation are effected in the market-yard under the supervision of the respective Market Committees authorised for that purpose. No person can buy or sell agricultural produce within the market-yard unless registered as a trader; however, a grower may sell his own agricultural produce. Cotton traders have to register their names by paying the prescribed fees which vary for first class and second class markets. The Market Committee by issuing licences authorises some brokers or *adtyas* to carry business transactions on commission basis. The *adtya* in consideration of an *adat* or commission, makes purchases or sales for others. The sale is usually by open auction. The *adtya* calls the prospective buyers and if the highest bid is acceptable to the producer, the auction is complete. The auctioned commodity is weighed by licensed weighmen and the seller is given the price of his produce after deducting authorised and standardised commission charges of the

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adtya, weighmen, *hamal* and the Committee. The Committee fixes the rates of commission and other market charges. The buyers and sellers are constantly kept informed about the ruling prices.

Regulated Markets.

The establishment of regulated markets under various Market Acts, aims at helping the cultivator to get a fair price for his produce and in eliminating the middleman. The main features of such Acts are: regulation of market practices, clear definition of market charges, reduction of excessive charges, licensing of market functionaries, *e.g.*, buyers, brokers and weighmen, use of standard weights and measures, settlement of disputes, appointment of market committees representing growers, traders, local authority and Government, publishing of reliable and up-to-date market information and bringing these markets and market committees under the purview of official control.

Development of Regulated Markets.

Amravati, since long is famous for its large cotton trade. The deep black cotton soil yields a rich crop. Cotton market committees, therefore, came to be established as early as the eighties of the 19th century. The Amravati Cotton Market dates back to 1872. This Market and the Dattapur-Dhamangaon Cotton Market were established under the Hyderabad Residency Orders, for, Amravati together with the other districts of Berar was in the Nizam's Dominion till 1903 when it became a part of the Central Provinces. Subsequently, six more cotton market committees were formed in the district, *viz*., Amravati, Ellichpur (Achalpur), Dattapur (Dhamangaon), Morshi, Chandur Rly. and Daryapur. Each of these was managed in the initial stage by a small committee appointed by the Commissioner.

There are nine regulated markets in the district, of which six are cotton markets and three grain markets. The former are located at Amravati, Achalpur, Dhamangaon, Warud, Daryapur and Anjangaon Surji, and the latter at Amravati, Dhamangaon and Daryapur.

Amravati Cotton Market.

The Amravati Cotton Market is the biggest and the oldest cotton market in India. It functions under the Central Provinces Cotton Market Act, IX of 1932 and the Berar Cotton Market Rules, 1942. From 1947, it is under the management of the Amravati Taluka Co-operative Agricultural Association. The market area covers the whole of Amravati tahsil. The market-yard situated in the heart of the town extends over 3.642 hectares (nine acres). There are buildings in the yard to accommodate the office, the meeting-room and a reading-room and some rooms for the market functionaries. The Association provides drinking water, water trough for cattle, godowns and laboratory for determining the ginning percentage of cotton. An establishment of a post office along with installation of a radio-set at the yard has facilitated speedy communication. The Association undertakes to disseminate information regarding the prices of various grades of cotton and distributes improved seeds among the cultivators.

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The total arrivals at the Amravati Cotton Market Committee in 1961-62 were 500,000 quintals of cotton valued at Rs. 5,00,00,000.

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Warud Cotton Market.

The Warud Cotton Market was established in 1933 under the management of the Market Committee, Warud. In 1956, the management was transferred to the Warud Co-operative Agricultural Sale and Purchase Society. The cotton market serves the area comprising the Warud and Pusala Revenue Circles and the eastern portion of the Morshi Revenue Circle bounded by the river Mandu. The market-yard extends over an area of 0.789 hectares (one acre and 38 gunthas). Cotton from the district as well as from the adjacent areas of Nagpur, Betul, Wardha and Chindwara districts is brought for sale. A number of facilities like water, cattle trough, electricity, etc., are provided

The total arrivals at the Warud Cotton Market in 1961-62 were 70.801 quintals of cotton valued at Rs. 92,74,296.

Daryapur Cotton Market.

The Banosa-Daryapur Cotton Market was established in 1903. It is a second class cotton market. It serves an area lying within a radius of 4.877 km. (three miles) of the market-yard The following were the functionaries at the market during 1960-61:—

Functionaries	*Their Approximate No.*	*Licence Fee in Rs.*
(1)	(2)	(3)
Traders (Big)	7	75
Traders (Small)	7	25
Adtyas	19	73
Weighmen	13	5

The receipts of the committee during 1960-61 totalled Rs. 6,418.40 and the expenditure Rs. 6,724.66. The market committee owns a spacious building where sales are effected.

Dhamangaon Cotton Market.

The Dhamangaon Cotton Market was established in 1897 under the Hyderabad Cotton and Grain Law, 1897. It now functions under the Central Provinces Cotton Market Act, 1932 and the Berar Cotton Rules, 1942. In 1954 the management of the market area was transferred from the Cotton Market Committee to the Chandur Taluka Purchase and Sale Society The market covers an area lying within a radius of 2.414 km. (1½ miles) of the market-yard, including all ginning factories and their premises. Both ginned and unginned cotton is sold in the market. The main varieties transacted are 197/3 ; L-147 ; *Deshi* and *Buri*. The total turnover during 1960-61 amounted

Regulated Markets.

Dhamangaon Cotton Market.

to 17,706 quintals. The following were the functionaries at the market in 1960-61:—

Functionaries	*Their Approximate No.*	*Licence Fee in Rs.*
Traders (Big)	11	100
Traders (Small)	26	25
Adtyas	47	100
Weighmen	24	5

The society undertakes the dissemination of current market prices of various grades of cotton.

The total arrivals at the Dhamangaon Cotton Market in 1961-62, were 92,394 quintals of cotton valued at Rs. 1,11,81,280.

Anjangaon-Surji Cotton Market.

The Anjangaon-Surji Cotton Market was established in 1917. It now functions under the Daryapur Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society. The market covers an area of about 38.85 km² (15 square miles). The varieties of cotton regulated at the market are 197/3; L-147 and *Deshi*.

In 1960-61 the market functionaries were 10 traders, two *adtyas*, 39 petty purchasers and 15 weighmen. The income of the committee in 1960-61 was Rs. 7,315.96 and expenditure Rs. 3,139.71.

In 1961-62, 6,740 quintals of cotton valued at Rs. 79,38,300 arrived at the market-yard.

Achalpur Cotton Market.

The Achalpur Cotton Market started functioning in 1959-60. It covers an area of about 31.079 km² (12 square miles) including two pressing and three ginning factories. The principal market-yard extends over 3.87 hectares (9 acres and 23 gunthas). The management of the market rests with the Achalpur Taluka Sahakari Shetki Kharedi Vikri Samiti, Ltd. The varieties of cotton brought for sale are 6147; 0394; 197/3 and Co_2. In 1959-60 the market functionaries were 10 traders, three *adtyas* and nine weighmen. On an average about 150 cart-loads of cotton daily arrive in the market.

Amravati Grain Market.

The Amravati Grain Market was under the Municipal Committee till 1956. Subsequently the management was transferred to the Amravati Taluka Co-operative Agricultural Association. The market functions in the premises of the Amravati Cotton Market-yard. It has no arrangements at present for the weighing of grain. During 1959-60 there were 82 traders both big and small, 89 *adtyas* and 33 weighmen at the Amravati Grain Market. In the same year the receipts of the Grain Market amounted to Rs. 1,46,822.25 and the expenditure Rs. 75,484.03.

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Amravati Grain Market.

The following statement shows the arrivals of agricultural commodities at the Amravati Grain Market in 1961-62:—

Commodities	*Arrivals in quintals*	*Value in Rs.*
Jowar	25,554	9,25,044
Wheat	65,220	23,49,584
Bajra	56,166	38,64,129
Tur	91,584	43,05,028
Gram	1,482	65,560
Mung	852	48,052
Udid	696	30,006
Groundnut	564	25,080
Linseed	2,988	2,39,040
Til (sesamum)	354	38,322

Dhamangaon Grain Market.

The Dhamangaon Grain Market was established in 1930. It now functions under the Chandur Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society, Ltd. This is a second class grain market. The market covers an area of 7.83 hectares (19 acres and 14 gunthas). It is well served by the railway line running adjacent to it. The market committee has an office building. The following functionaries worked at this market in 1960-61:—

Functionaries	*Number*	*Licence Fee in Rs.*
Traders	37	50
Adtyas	31	50
Measurers	15	5

The following statement shows the total arrivals of agricultural commodities at the Dhamangaon Grain Market in 1961-62:—

Commodities	*Arrivals in quintals*
Jowar	1,734
Wheat	378
Bajra	408
Tur	17,991
Gram	249
Mung	510
Udid	18
Groundnut	5,949
Rice	6
Chillis	5,469
Math	15
Tur dal	165
Other	1,245

Co-operative Marketing.

A proper system of marketing of agricultural produce in the best interests of the cultivator envisages a simultaneous growth of regulated markets and marketing co-operatives. The long chain of middlemen adversely affects the hard earnings of the

producer. To enable him to earn his due share in the produce, regulated markets and marketing co-operatives are thought to be the best remedies.

Marketing societies purchase and sell various commodities. Co-operative purchase and sale societies sell the produce of members and non-members on commission basis. Co-operative marketing of the agricultural produce was recently introduced in Amravati district. Prior to that the Taluka Agricultural Associations were dealing in agricultural implements, cement, iron and steel and fertilisers. They also dealt in foodgrains during the World War II. In villages multi-purpose co-operative societies were organised chiefly to deal in controlled foodgrains. The taluka and village societies were not interconnected except for the fact that the Amravati Taluka Agricultural Association acted as a wholesaler in the district for cloth brought from Bombay and Ahmedabad. With decontrol of foodgrains the village co-operatives have been liquidated. After the reorganisation of States in 1956 the Taluka Agricultural Associations have adopted the bye-laws of purchase and sale unions and are undertaking marketing activities. To ensure the withholding capacity of the agriculturist the necessity for properly linking co-operative marketing with finance was keenly felt Primary credit societies were thus established in the district to make finance available to the agriculturists. These societies have now been converted into *seva* societies and some of them have started dealing in non-credit activities also.

Besides improving the withholding capacity of the agriculturist, it is also necessary to increase his bargaining capacity. Government assistance is, therefore, granted to the co-operative societies for construction of godowns. Twenty societies in the district have been granted loans and subsidies for constructing medium and small-sized godowns. They have constructed 13 godowns so far. The members of the co-operative societies take advantage of the Central Warehouse at Amravati, State Warehouse at Dhamangaon and godowns constructed by various co-operative societies.

There are in all seven purchase and sale societies working in the district. They—

(i) distribute seeds, fertilisers, iron and steel, cement, foodgrains and sugar,

(ii) grant advances to agriculturists,

(iii) manage grain and cotton markets,

(iv) work as commission agents and conduct cotton and groundnut pools,

(v) sell or lend agricultural implements, oil engines, pumps etc., and

(vi) arrange to sell the agricultural produce and thus effect recoveries of loans.

The following table gives the value (in Rs.) of business done by the co-operative societies during 1960-61 :—

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Co-operative Marketing.

TABLE No. 21

BUSINESS DONE BY CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES (1960-61)

Name of Society	Foodgrains, Sugar, etc.	Cotton	Cotton-seed	Fertilisers	Groundnut	Miscellaneous
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Amravati Taluka Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	34,620	4,93,562	22,186	2.07,561	..	4,51,986
Chandur Railway Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	3,460	..	..	57,579	24,505	8,84,095
Morshi Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	57,179	1,10,168	..	1,10,168	..	5,72,167
Warud Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	59.989	3,33,805	..	3,10,598	..	9,26,992
Achalpur Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	8,435	6,24,190	805	2,53,507	..	6,60,395
Daryapur Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	80,371	9,67,289	22,329	5,32,993	..	13,70,888
Melghat Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	8,599	..	..	14,892	..	1,02,437
Total ..	2,52,653	25,29,014	45,320	14,87,298	24,505	49,68,960

Co-operative Marketing.

Cotton and groundnut form the main cash crops of the district. The following statement shows the nature of transactions carried out by the purchase and sale societies during 1960-61 :—

Name of the Market	Arrival of Cotton in bales	Total No. of bales marketed by Purchase and Sale Societies
(1)	(2)	(3)
Amravati	1,51,801	3,852
Achalpur	19,769	7,197
Dhamangaon	37,873	1,165
Warud	21,621	1,511
Daryapur	8,676	2,440
Anjangaon	22,653	8,360
Total ..	2,62,393	24,525

The Co-operative Ginning and Pressing Society at Amravati started functioning in 1958-59. It processed 1,931 cotton bales and 6,293 *bojas* in 1960-61. The Pathrot and Karajgaon Vividh Karyakari Society ginned 1,871 bales and 1,668 *bojas* in 1960-61. The Daryapur and Anjangaon Ginning and Pressing Societies are expected to function soon.

The annual turnover of the co-operative purchase and sale societies as on 30th June 1961 was as follows :—

Name of Purchase and Sale Society	Sales in Rs.	Sale as agents
(1)	(2)	(3)
Amravati Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	4,86,606	7,24,463
Chandur Railway Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society	8,87 555	82,987
Morshi Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society	6,29,981	1,10.168
Warud Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	9,86,981	6.44,403
Achalpur Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	6,68,830	8,77,597
Daryapur Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	14,51,259	15,22,521
Melghat Co-operative Purchase and Sale Society.	1,11,036	14,899
Total .	52,22,248	39,77,138

Market Places.

With increasing demand for a variety of goods resulting from the development of transport, the retail shops have reached far-away places. This has, however, not led to the disappearance of

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weekly markets. Weekly markets are held at about* 79 places in the district. Of these by far the most important are the markets at Morshi and Rajura Bazar in Morshi tahsil and at Daryapur with weekly sales estimated to range between 1¼ to 2 lakhs of rupees. The commodities sold are grain, cloth, groceries, cattle, timber, etc. Next come the markets at Warud and Banosa with weekly aggregate sales of about Rs. 75,000 each. Shendurjana and Nerpingalai with a weekly turnover of Rs. 49,700 and Rs. 20,050 respectively follow next. Other places in the order of importance are the Anjansinghi, Kurha, Dharni, Yeoda, Karatkhed and Pimplod. The remaining bazars (25 in Amravati; 16 in Achalpur and 4 in Chikhaldara tahsils) are of only local importance with a weekly sale ranging from Rs. 200 to Rs. 2,000. The markets at Daryapur, Banosa and Kurha owe their importance mainly to the net-work of district roads which makes possible the assembling of the agricultural produce from the outlying fertile areas.

Every village, where a bazar is held, has its separate market place. In municipal towns and in the areas under the Zilla Parishad the weekly markets are generally regulated. The local authorities collect cesses and stall fees from the traders and provide, in turn, certain facilities for the upkeep of the bazar including the arrangement of water-supply, provision of *otas* for stocking goods and so on. With all this, the weekly markets offer a lively sight. Besides the sale and purchase of various goods of daily use, the entertainment corner with merry-go-rounds and magic shows, music and dance performances by some local troupes and eatables and other refreshments constitute an added attraction.

Periodical markets are held at the following towns and villages in Amravati district:—

Melghat Tahsil ..	Dharni unit—Dharni, Kalamkhar, Susarda Bairagad, Baroo, Chikhaldara unit—Goulkheda, Jamali, Kulangana, Katkumbh.
Amravati Tahsil ..	Shirala, Pusada, Nandgaonpeth, Daware, Saur, Yavli, Takerkheda, Wathoda Shukle, Walgaon, Thugaon, Nandgaon Shukle, Mangrul, Mahuli, Chor, Dhanora Fasi, Wadhona Ramnath, Pimpalgaon, Anjangaon, Mahuli Jahagir, Ganori, Asara, Shioni, Ganoja, Khartalgaon, Bhatkuli, Manjari, Mhasal.
Chandur Tahsil ..	Malkhed, Palaskhed, Mozari, Virul, Kurha, Shirasgaon (Mozari), Shiongaon, Yerad, Amla, Anjansingi, Dhanora, Mogla.

*According to the information supplied by the Tahsildars in the district.

Daryapur Tahsil ..	Yeoda, Karatkhed, Pimplod, Adula Bazar, Sasan Ramapur, Wadner Gangai, Umari Mamdabad, Warud Bk., Bhamod, Lotwada, Itaki, Satrgaon, Bhandaraj, Chinchali, Anjangaon, Daryapur, Banosa, Kapustalani, Khallar, Kokarda, Kasabe Gawhan.
Achalpur Tahsil ..	Brahmanwada Thadi, Ghat Ladki, Pathrot, Asatpur, Rasegaon, Tuljapur Gadhi, Shindi Bk., Sirasgaon Band, Kakda, Dalingaon, Kolha, Paratwada, Bahiram, Tawlar.
Morshi Tahsil ..	Morshi, Rajura Bazar, Warud, Shendurjana, Nerpingalai.

In the past, fairs served the purpose of retail trading, the retail shops then being mainly located at the urban centres in the district. Now with the facilities of easy transport even the small villages are served by retail shops. The purchase of goods of daily use at the time of the fair is not, therefore, so much a necessity. The fairs thus, do not attract large gatherings, as they did in the past. However, taking a holiday to honour the deity and to bargain at the fair is still common among the rural folks. In areas, where the system of communications is still in its infancy, fairs even today play an important part. Thus there are fairs held at Sawanga Vithoba, Wadner Gangai, Nerpingalai, Riddhpur, Bahiram and Uparai. They still draw large crowd and involve a large turnover in goods. However, some have fallen into insignificance and have been discontinued. Others at Guikhed, Talegaon Dashasar, etc., have in time gained much in importance.

At almost all the places with a shrine or a tomb, scores of persons assemble every year on some particular day to honour the deity or persons. There are twenty-four such places where fairs are held.

Fairs at Kaundinyapur, Salbardi, Bahiram and Amla are very important and draw a large gathering from the adjacent districts. The estimated turnover at these fairs amounts to Rs. 2,00,000. Next in order of importance are the fairs at Talegaon Dashasar, Guikhed, Sawanga Vithoba, Nerpingalai, Bhiltek, Riddhpur and Pimplod. The total turnover at these places ranges between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 75,000. The commodities traded are grain, earthen and metal pots, cloth, ready-made clothes, timber, cattle, imitation jewellery and other goods of daily use. At very small fairs, the total turnover of trade hardly exceeds Rs. 5,000.

These fairs are usually attended by pedlars petty shop keepers and villagers from the neighbouring areas. Wholesale traders generally do not attend them. Among the salesmen are included the farmers, gardeners, grocers, sweetmeat makers, weavers, tailors, etc. Transactions at all the fairs are done on cash basis

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and rarely on barter. Large fairs are generally managed by the local authorities which collect pilgrim taxes and in turn make arrangements for water-supply, layout of accommodation for visitors and merchants, etc.

TABLE No. 22

FAIRS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of Tahsil	Name of the Fair	Turnover in Rs.	No. of Persons attending
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Morshi	Nerpingalai	15,000	10,000
	Riddhpur	10,000	4,000
	Salbardi	2,00,000	1,00,000
Amravati	Yaoli	N.A.	2,000
	Marki	N.A.	2.000
	Rinmochan	10,000	5,000
	Rewasa	N.A.	2,000
	Kondeshwar	N.A.	1,500
Chandur Railway	Kaudinyapur	3,00,000	1,00,000
	Bhiltek	25,000	15,000
	Talegaon Dashasar	1,00,000	50,000
	Guikhed	1,00,000	50,000
	Sawanga Vithoba	50,000	25,000
	Sonegaon Kherda	5,000	5,000
Daryapur	Pimplod	10,000	10,000
	Saon Ramapur	600	1,000
	Yeoda	2,000	6,000
	Bhamod	300	1,500
	Samada Kasampur	500	3,000
	Adula Bazar	200	1,500
	Lasur	200	1,000
	Wadner Gangai	2.000	4,000
	Jainpur	200	1,500
	Tonglabad	500	1,500
	Chaurala	500	1,500
	Murha Bk.	300	1,000
	Uparai	N.A.	6,000
	Kokarda	N.A.	1,000
	Amla	2,00,000	1,00,000
Achalpur	Bahiram	N.A.	2,00,000
	Dhanora	N.A	20,000
Melghat	Dharanmahau	600	N.A.

Retail Trade.

During the last few years considerable expansion is witnessed in the number and turnover of retail shops both in the rural and urban areas. In rural areas where people formerly depended for their daily needs of consumption on weekly and periodical bazars and fairs, a number of retail shop dealing in groceries, cloth, *pan-bidi*, etc., have sprung up. The growth of retail shops is more marked in urban and semi-urban places like Amravati, Badnera, Achalpur, Morshi, Chandur Bazar, etc. These shops provide a link between the consumer and the wholesaler and are

fairly distributed in the various wards and *peths* of these towns. Their stock-in-trade is usually limited and is immediately replaced when goods are sold out.

Amravati is a large cotton market and a growing industrial centre. Railways and roads running in different directions connect it with the outlying areas of the district and, therefore, the town serves as an assembling and distributing centre. Achalpur, Badnera and Anjangaon Surji stand next in importance, in population, trade and industrial activity. There is, therefore, a large number of retail shops catering to the needs of the growing population in these towns.

The Shops and Establishments Act is not yet made applicable to the retail shops in the municipal areas of the district. A record of the distribution of the various retail shops is, therefore, not available. A survey of the retail establishments, carried out at different places in the district, however, reveals some broad facts about their distribution, turnover seasonal variations in business, etc.

Grocery, *pan-bidi*, cloth, coal and wood and vegetable shops are numerous and are evenly distributed in almost all the localities and wards. Bicycle being a convenient mode of transport, a large number of cycle shops (doing hire and repair business) are found in most of the wards. Shops dealing in medicine, stationery, footwear, general merchandise, sweetmeats, fruits, etc. do not feature in day-to-day life and are thus not so well dispersed as those of the first group. Still other kinds of shops dealing in articles of seasonal or less regular demand, *e.g.*, jewellery, utensils, glassware, hardware, building material, etc are seen to be concentrated in particular localities, while location of shops selling mutton, fish, etc. in a few places is mainly due to the municipal regulations.

The demand in remote villages being limited, retail shops belonging to any and every category are not to be met with at such places. There, retail shops do combined business selling daily necessities such as grocery, cloth, wood and fuel, *pan-bidi*, cloth, stationery, etc. These shops generally do good trade from October to June. The peak season is reached during festivals. The value of the stock-in-trade depends on the business and varies considerably from a couple of hundred rupees to scores of thousands in case of a distant village shop and a shop located in a busy town.

The retailers usually buy from the wholesalers in the town but some trade directly with the distant merchants especially for the purchase of cloth, grains, hardware, etc., Retail sales are usually on cash basis. However, a number of shop-keepers extend credit facilities to their customers.

Amravati district has fertile soil which yields a wide variety of crops. Thus grains are generally bought at the wholesale trade centres of the district, *viz.*, Amravati, Chandur Bazar, Anjangaon, Morshi, Achalpur, etc. and only a few merchants buy

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from outside. Cloth merchants usually purchase their requirements through local agents of the various textile mills or from wholesale traders in the district. Only merchants doing business on a large scale have connections with outside merchants at the textile centres of Bombay, Nagpur, Sholapur and Madras. Saris are usually brought from Nagpur, Ichalkaranji, Malegaon, Coimbatore and Indore. Hosiery goods are brought directly from Bombay, Poona, Bangalore and Amravati. Petty shop-keepers buy from the wholesalers in the district. Wood and charcoal are generally purchased from the minor forest area of the district lying on the outskirts of the main forest area (Melghat tahsil). The Melghat tahsil of the district has rich teak which is sold at the timber shops in the district. Fruits and vegetables are brought from the adjoining rural areas as also from Poona, Nasik, Nagpur and Ratnagiri. Hardware such as iron sheets, bars, screws, paints, tiles and cement are brought from Bombay, Calcutta and Delhi. With the general increase in the building activity, there is an expansion of this business in recent times.

Medicine shops generally do good business. The shops deal in a variety of medicines and drugs, allopathic, ayurvedic and other indigenous and foreign as well. The stocks are often brought from Nagpur, Bombay, Calcutta, Baroda, etc. Small dealers purchase their stocks at Amravati. The bicycle shops are spread throughout the district doing repair and hire business. Bombay, Madras, Delhi are the main stocking centres from where new bicycles are brought for sale.

Stationery articles are mainly brought from Bombay, Poona, Delhi and Bhagalpur ; paper from Titaghar ; cutlery from Bombay and toys and presentation articles from Delhi, Mysore and Bombay. Footwear and leather goods are chiefly brought from Kanpur and Calcutta.

The retailers mostly carry on their business on credit, paying off the wholesalers when the goods are sold out. Sometimes the *adtyas* (commission agents) arrange for the money on commission basis.

Dispersion of Shops.

The general dispersion of retail shops exhibits certain peculiar features. The shops selling goods of daily use like grain, grocery, pan and bidis, cloth and hosiery, coal, wood and fuel, cycle shops and vegetables stalls are fairly distributed in all the wards and localities. Shops dealing in books and stationery, footwear, sweet-meats, drugs and medicines are not so well dispersed. Still others like metal utensils, potteries, glassware, hardware, perfumes, building material, etc. have each their own particular localities where they are found in large numbers. Shops selling mutton, beef, fish, eggs, etc. are restricted to certain localities under the municipal regulations.

Groceries.

The grocery group occupies a prominent place among the retail shops in respect of the consumers' wants and are found to be evenly distributed. All sorts of cereals, pulses, gur, sugar, oil, ghee, spices, condiments, tea, coffee and other grocery articles

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Groceries

are kept for sale. The stock-in-trade of individual shops varies in value by a wide range from about Rs. 100 to even over a lakh of rupees depending upon the urban or rural character of the shop and the existing demand. A majority of the shops are, however, small with a stock worth about Rs. 200 to Rs. 1,000. The grocery articles are generally bought at the wholesale trade centres of the district, *viz.*, Amravati, Chandur Bazar, Anjangaon, Morshi, Achalpur, *etc.*, while a few shop-keepers have direct connections with the outside merchants. Usually shop-keepers buy their stock on credit and settle the bills within three or four weeks. Servants are generally employed for handling and weighing commodities. The larger shop-keepers sometimes engage clerks and accountants for maintaining accounts books. Sales shrink during the rainy season and at the end of each month. The business is brisk during the dry season and especially so during festivals and marriage season.

Pan, Bidi, Cigarettes and Tobacco

Next in importance to shops selling grocery are the *pan-bidi* shops. Their number is the largest of all the groups. They are seen to be distributed all over. Almost all of these establishments are managed single-handed. *Pan, bidis,* cigarettes, chewing tobacco, betel-nuts, catechu and lime (*chuna*) are the main articles for sale. The value of the stock-in-trade generally varies between Rs. 10 and Rs. 500. The business is generally slack during the rainy season and brisk on Sundays and holidays. Most of the shop-keepers buy from the wholesale dealers in the district, while some have direct contacts with outside merchants. A large number of establishments themselves manufacture *bidis* for sale

Cloth, Hosiery and Ready-made Clothes.

The cloth shops sell all kinds of textiles, cotton, woollen, silk, nylon, *etc.* Shirtings, coatings, saris (both 5 and 9 yds.), dhotis, chaddars, shawls, *etc.*, are kept at such shops. A majority of the shop-keepers purchase their requirements through the local agents of the various textile mills or from the wholesale traders in the district. The value of the stock-in-trade of the majority of the shops is from Rs. 500 to Rs. 5,000. However, the shops in towns and cities stock goods worth from Rs. 10,000 to over Rs. 1,00,000. Big shops employ salesmen and clerks. As in the case of other shops the business is generally slack during rainy season. There is a heavy rush during festivities and the marriage season.

At urban centres shops specialising in the sale of hosiery and ready-made clothes are to be found. In rural places, however, cloth shops sell these goods to augment the total sales. The hosiery goods and ready-made clothes are brought directly from Bombay, Poona, Bangalore, Amravati, *etc.* Petty shop-keepers buy from the wholesalers in the district.

Wood and Fuel.

Wood and fuel shops sell firewood, charcoal, dried dung-cakes and in some cases coal and coke. A large quantity of fuel is collected from the minor forest area of the district which lies on the outskirts of the main forest area (Melghat and in the

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plain areas of the district). The timber shops get their teak from the Melghat tahsil which has rich teak forests. The wood and fuel shops are found in all the localities while timber shops are few and far between.

Wood and Fuel.

People generally store firewood and coal for use during monsoon just before the rains. Consequently the trade is brisk at that time. There is a substantial demand for timber when the constructional activity is in full swing.

Fruits and Vegetables.

The perishable nature of the goods sold and the general absence of cold storage facilities restrict the size of the shops dealing in fruits and vegetables. The stock is obtained from the adjoining rural areas and from the vegetables and fruit growing centres like Poona, Nasik, Nagpur, Ratnagiri, etc. The kinds of fruits and vegetables sold depend upon the season in which they are produced. As a rule vegetable shops are more evenly spread.

Hardware and Building Material.

With a general increase in the building activity, the number of shops in this category has increased. These are mainly to be found in all the important towns and they deal in cement, timber, iron sheets, bars, screws, paints and tiles. Timber is chiefly bought locally Other goods are brought from Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, etc. The stocking of these goods requires large capital. The retailers buy directly from outside merchants or from the wholesale dealers at important centres of the district.

Medicines and Drugs.

With the rising general consciousness about health and hygiene, a number of drug shops are making appearance and doing thriving business. The shops deal in a variety of medicines and drugs, allopathic, ayurvedic and other indigenous and foreign medicines. The medicines are often brought from Nagpur, Bombay, Calcutta, Baroda, etc. Most of the dealers in smaller towns purchase their goods from Amravati.

Cycle Shops.

Bicycles being a popular and convenient means of transport at the district places, there are quite a number of shops in the important towns of the district, *viz.*, Amravati, Badnera, Achalpur, Morshi and Chandur Bazar. These shop-keepers have connections with the wholesale merchants of Bombay. Some of the shops keep bicycles for hire also.

Stationery, Cutlery, Bangles, Provisions, Footwear, etc.

The number of shops of this category show a constant rise in response to the rising demand for such articles. These shops specialise in the sale of stationery, toilet articles, bangles, cutlery, provisions, toys, footwear, presentation articles, etc. Stationery articles are brought mainly from Bombay, Delhi, Poona and Bhagalpur; paper from Titaghar and cutlery and provision goods from Bombay Toys and presentation articles are brought from Delhi, Mysore and Bombay. Footwear and leather goods are chiefly brought from Kanpur and Calcutta.

Hawkers.

Hawkers sell a variety of goods such as vegetables and fruits, sprouted grains, toys and sweets, confectionery, cutlery, oil, ghee and kerosene. They carry goods on their persons in baskets or on hand-carts and sell them from house to house. The sale of goods is mostly on cash basis.

Retail Trade.

Hawkers.

Hawkers generally buy their goods from wholesalers and retailers in towns. Amravati, Achalpur City and Achalpur Civil Station and Shendurjana municipalities in the district have introduced the system of licensing of hawkers. The number of hawkers as reported by the different municipalities in 1961-62 was as follows: Amravati 290; Achalpur City 16; Achalpur Civil Station, 74; Shendurjana, 80 and Chandur Bazar, 2. Badnera municipality did not report any hawkers. However, hawkers from Amravati go to Badnera on bazar days, *viz.*, Monday and Friday. The municipalities at Anjangaon Surji, Morshi, Warud and Chikhaldara also did not report any hawkers in their respective areas.

Pedlars.

Pedlars go from village to village carrying their merchandise with them. A number of factors have affected their trade adversely during the last half a century or so. They are: (i) the growing importance of weekly bazars, (ii) the opening up of retail shops in the distant villages, and (iii) improved transport facilities providing villages an easy access to the nearby urban areas and market places. The villagers who earlier used to patronise the pedlars, now show a marked preference for periodical markets and retail shops which offer them a wide variety and choice. However, wherever places are inadequately served by retail shops and weekly markets they play a very important part.

Pedlars still carry on their trade almost in the same old fashion. Some of them use horses, donkeys or bullock-carts to carry their goods upon. However, many carry their loads on their persons. Almost all the transactions are on cash basis. Barter takes place only when agricultural produce is exchanged for other useful articles.

Some of the pedlars belong to professional classes, *e.g.*, oilmen, weavers, etc. Others buy goods at urban places and sell them by peddling The goods for sale include a wide variety such as oil, cloth, fruits, grains, ready-made clothes, cloth, saris, caps, utensils, blankets, carpets, condiments and spices, etc.

Pedlars usually carry on their business in fair weather. They belong to the local areas of the district; a few, however, come from the outlying districts and occasionally from distant towns.

The local pedlars generally buy their stocks from Paratwada, Anjangaon, Bhaisdehi, Amravati, Chandur, Dhamangaon and Brahmanwada Thadi in the district and from the nearby districts of Khandwa, Akola and Nagpur.

In 1962 the number of pedlars* in the various tahsils of Amravati district was as follows: Melghat 210 (Dharni 150 and Chikhaldara 60); Amravati (100); Chandur Railway (500); Daryapur (519); Morshi (300); and Achalpur (550).

Trade Associations.

There are half a dozen trade associations in the district The Nag-Vidarbha Chamber of Commerce with its head office at Nagpur is an apex organisation. Of the other associations in the Amravati district the notable are the Amravati Cotton

*Based on the information supplied by the Tahsildars in Amravati district.

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Merchants' Association, Amravati, and the Grain and Seeds Merchants' Association, Amravati.

Trade Associations.

With the growth in the trade of the district, traders have organised themselves in associations on the lines of the guilds that existed in the past. The associations function to protect the interests of their members, to bring about closer co-operation amongst them, to lay down a common policy and devise ways and means to promote trade and to settle amicably the disputes, if any, amongst the members.

Nag-Vidarbha Chamber of Commerce.

The Nag-Vidarbha Chamber of Commerce, an apex organisation for the region, was established in 1944 in response to the need for an organised body which would speak for the merchants of the region as a whole. It secures and furthers the interests of the business community of the country in general and of Vidarbha in particular. The Chamber undertakes a thorough study of the difficulties experienced by its members and seeks solutions as far as possible. It also collects and disseminates statistical information for the benefit of its members.

The membership of the Chamber consists of three classes: (i) ordinary members of whom there are three types (a) individual merchants, (b) joint stock companies and (c) associations; (ii) honorary members and (iii) patrons.

The Chamber is included in the list of Associations and Chambers of Commerce and Trade recognised by the State Government as well as by the Government of India. It is now represented on many official bodies.

Amravati Cotton Merchants' Association.

The Cotton Merchants' Association established at Amravati in 1949 aims at promoting the interests of its members either directly or indirectly. It collects and publishes statistical information, *e.g.*, annual figure of cotton bales produced, minimum and maximum price for cotton, railway freight rates for cotton bales to be sent from Amravati to about 160 stations in the country, etc. It tries to redress the grievances of its members and settles, as far as possible by arbitration, disputes among its members or among its members and non-members.

State Trading.

State trading in foodgrains is undertaken with a view to correcting mal-distribution of the various essential articles and to exercise control over their prices.

In Amravati, the scheme of distribution of essential commodities was started in 1958. The number of fair price shops in the district and their management were as follows in 1962-63:—

Places	Co-operative Societies	Gram-panchayats	Private Bodies	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
District Headquarters ..	35	10	84	129
Tahsil Headquarters ..	17	..	75	92
In villages	130	252	212	594
Total for the district ..	182	262	371	815

State Trading.

The quantity and value of the goods disbursed by the fair price shops in the district in 1962-63 was as under:—

Goods	*Quantity (in quintals)*	*Value (in Rs.)*
Wheat	1,38,928—25—000	52,49,939—54
Rice (American medium) ..	18,530—47—662	8,00,184—08
Rice (American long grain) ..	17,256—38—500	8,41,994—90
Rice (*Arwa*)	611—37—000	34,777—11

Regulation of Fair price Shops.

Fair price shops are allotted to co-operative societies, gram-panchayats and individuals in consultation with the District Food and Civil Supplies Advisory Committee of the district. The fair price shop-keepers have to maintain stock and sale register for the commodities supplied. Sale of local market grains is also allowed provided a separate register is maintained for that purpose. The Supply Inspectors in the district keep a close watch on the sales effected through these shops.

Weights and Measures.

The weights and measures in the district were numerous and they very often varied with the types of commodities. A similar picture prevailed throughout the country. This created considerable difficulties in inter-regional trade. A uniform system of weights and measures was, therefore, adopted by the Government of India and the Standard of Weights and Measures Act, 1956, was enacted. This Act laid down the basic units under the Metric System which derives its name from the primary unit of measurement, the metre. The metric units based on the multiples of ten have an advantage in application. The erstwhile Government of Bombay, in response to the Central enactment, passed a complementary legislation, *viz.*, the Bombay Weights and Measures Act, 1958. The Act was enforced throughout the State from 1st April 1962, so far as metric weights were concerned. The enforcement was gradually extended to other fields and on 1st October 1962, the metric units of length and on 1st April 1963, the metric measures of capacity were also respectively enforced.

The following conversion table shows the relation between the old and the new units.

Weights.

For sugar, cotton, ghee, flour, tobacco, turmeric, etc., the most common weights were tola, seer, *dhada* and maund. Their metric conversions are—

1 tola = 180 grains = 11.6638 gm.

80 tolas = 1 seer = 933.10 gm.

2½ seers = 1 *dhada* = 2.332 kilograms.

40 seers = 1 maund (*man*) = 37.324 kg.

20 maunds = 1 khandi = 746.48 kg.

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Weights and Measures

Weights.

Even in these there were a number of variations. Thus the common terms like *pasari*, *dhada* and maund had varied denominations, *e.g.*:—

1 *pasari* = 100 tolas of groceries = 1.166 kg.

1 *pasari* = 115 tolas of tobacco = 1.341 kg.

1 *pasari* = 120 tolas of raw sugar = 1.399 kg.

1 *pasari* = 150 to 180 tolas for cotton, *i.e.*, 1.749 to 2.099 kg. or 135 tolas in Daryapur, *i.e.*, varying from 200 tolas to 360 tolas, *i.e.*, between 2.332 kg. to 4.198 kg.

Maund — Varying between 10 seers and 40 seers, *i.e.*, between 9.331 kg. and 37.324 kg.

In the cotton industry *kapas* (raw cotton) and ginned cotton were dealt with according to the following scales:—

Kapas (raw cotton)—

38.87 tolas = 1 lb. = 453.3719 grams.

7 lbs. = 1 quarter = 3.173 kg.

4 quarters = 1 maund = 12.692 kg.

20 maunds = 1 khandi (local) = 2.53 quintals.

Cotton (ginned)—

38.87 tolas = 1 lb. = 453.3719 gm.

28 lbs. = 1 maund = 12.694 kg.

10 maunds = 1 *bojha* = 1.269 quintals.

Pressed Cotton—

Bombay Khardi = 784 lbs. = 10 Bengali mds.
= 3.554 quintals.

Gold—

1 tola = 12 mashas = 216 grains = 1.3996 gm.

1 masha = 4 *wals* or 8 *gunjas* = .1737 gm.

Capacity.

Grains—

16 *chattaks* = 1 seer = 100 tolas.

2 seers = 1 *paili* = 2.332 kg.

8 *pailis* = 1 *kuro* or maund = 18.656 kg.

20 maunds = 1 khandi = 3.731 quintals.

For Ghee and Milk—

1 seer = 80 tolas = 933.104 gm.

Weights and Measures.
Length.

For depth or height—

purush (a man) = a fathom = 6 ft. = 1.82 metres.

For cloth—

hath (of 18 inches) = *gaz* = 45.72 centimetres.

2 *gaz.* = 1 yard or *war* = 91.44 centimetres.

For distance—

kos = 2 miles = 3.218 km.

Area.

For Area—

1 acre = 40 gunthas = .40 hectare.

1 guntha = .1 hectare.

1 bigha = 25 gunthas = .25 hectare.

Tiffan = 4 acres = 1.60 hectares.

1 grain = 0.064.799 grams = 64.799 mg.

1 tola = 180 grains = 11.6638 grams.

1 val = 4.5 grains = 0.2916 grams = 291.6 milligrams.

1 ounce = 2.43,056 tolas = 128.3495 grams.

1 pound (lb). = 0 4,535,924 kilograms = 453.592 grams.

1 seer = 0.93,310 kilograms = 933.10 grams = 80 tolas.

1 ton = 1.01,605 metric tons.

1 md. = 0.0,367,347 tons = 0.0,373,242 metric tons.

1 inch = 0.0,254 metres = 2.54 centimetres.

1 foot = 12 inches = 0 3,048 metres = 30.48 centimetres.

1 yard = 36 inches = 0.9,144 metres = 91.44 centimetres.

1 furlong = 660 ft. = 220 yards = 201.168 metres.

1 chain = 20.1,168 metres.

1 sq. inch = 0.00,064,516 metres.

1 sq. foot = 144 sq. inches = 0.092,903 metres.

1 sq. yard = 9 sq. feet = 0.83,613 metres.

1 sq. mile = 640 acres = 258,999 hectares.

1 cubic inch = 16.3,871 cubic centimetres.

1 fluid ounce = 28.4,132 cubic centimetres.

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Weights and Measures.

1 gill = 142.066 cubic centimetres.

1 gallon = 277.420 cubic inches = 4.54,596 litres.

1 litre = 1,000.028 cubic centimetres.

Even after the enforcement of the above Act old units such as seer, *paili, kudo, purush,* etc., are still in vogue at least in domestic parlance. With the passage of time and acclimatisation of the people with the new system the old system will be gradually replaced by the new.

CHAPTER 7 — COMMUNICATIONS

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

INTRODUCTION.

OF THE OLD TRADE ROUTES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT not much is known. References to the lines of road communications in this district are available for the closing years of the last century.

The section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway falling in Amravati district was opened for traffic in 1865-66. This started a new era in the economic life of the district. The Amravati branch line, which connected the most important town in the district with the main line, was opened in 1871.

Of road routes*, the Amravati-Ellichpur-Paratwada-Dharni-Burhanpur road was the longest. It covered a distance of 157.72 kilometres (98 miles) and connected the remote parts of the district with the headquarters. The main branches of this great artery were as follows:—

(1) the Walgaon (Balgaon)-Chandur Bazar road with a distance of 26.54 kilometres (16½ miles) fully metalled,

(2) the Ghatang-Chikhaldara road, winding up the hillsides for some 24 kilometres (15 miles) on a sufficiently easy gradient for motor cars,

(3) the Ellichpur (Achalpur)-Chandur Bazar road

From Ellichpur a gravelled road emanated for Betul, crossing the district border at Bairamghat. The main road was crossed at Assegaon by a fair weather road from Chandur Bazar to Daryapur. Daryapur was connected to Amravati by a good country road and to Murtizapur (a railway station in Akola) by a high road, partly metalled and partly gravelled. The Morshi tahsil was served by another first class road from Amravati to Pusla *via* Sawarkhed, Morshi and Warud. This road was further extended to Nagpur district. A branch road from Warud to Multai served as an important link between Amravati district and Multai. Another arterial route of importance was the

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, 1911.

†The following extract from the Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, 1911, throws interesting light on the road routes then existing. "The lack of first class or second class roads, however, is not so serious a matter as might at first sight be supposed for the country tracks, except in the rainy season, are excellent and their soft surface is probably less tiring to the bullocks' feet than a more permanent roadway be".

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Nagpur Dak road. However, the railway replaced it as a through route. The south and south-east portion† of the district derived a far greater advantage from the railway line which connected three of its most important towns, *viz.*, Badnera, Chandur and Dhamangaon. There was one metalled road from Dhamangaon to Yeotmal.

The Forest Department had maintained a 'splendid system of communications'* for its own use in the Melghat reserved forests.

The system of communications in this district may roughly be compared to the human anatomy. The Central Railway running the whole length of the central valley is the backbone of the system. On it converges a network of highways and major roads communicating with most of the important towns and centres of trade. There is a short arm-like railway line reaching from Badnera to Amravati.

The entire system of roads converges on Amravati which, in turn, is connected with Badnera by a railway line. Thus the arrangements connecting the northern and eastern parts of the district with the outlying areas are extremely good.

The system of transport in the western and north-western areas of the district was completed with the inauguration of the Murtizapur-Ellichpur railway line and the Purna-Akola-Khandwa route. The former route serves the affluent areas of Daryapur and Ellichpur. The commercial importance of the line is immense. The Purna-Akola-Khandwa railway line, which passes through the remote forest areas of the district, serves as a very good link between the metre gauge railway in the north and south India. It mainly facilitates the transport of forest produce in Melghat tahsil.

In the following sections a detailed account of the railway routes, highways, major roads and approach roads and a description of the facilities of transport and communications in the district is given. An attempt has also been made to deal with the historical and structural aspects of the various means of transport and communications.

RAILWAYS.

Amravati district, like Nagpur, enjoys a very favourable position as regards railway communications. There are three railway routes traversing the fertile black alluvial soil and the flourishing agricultural land which immensely add to the importance of the district. The railway routes, supplemented by a network of highways and feeder roads, have been of very great benefit to the district for, besides the usual advantages of improved communications and the development of trade, they have helped in the proper exploitation and utilisation of the agricultural and forest resources of the district.

Of the three routes passing through this district, the Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur route is the most important, as it links Amravati with cities like Bombay, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Calcutta,

Delhi and Madras. Being a trunk line of railway communication, it has facilitated easy transport to centres of trade and industry all over the country. The Murtizapur-Ellichpur narrow gauge line has added to the developmental propensities of the western sector of Amravati. It has opened for traffic the lands which are rich in agricultural and forest resources. The Khandwa-Akola-Purna metre gauge railway route, marks an important landmark in the history of communications in this region. This route has served as an important link between the metre gauge railway systems in North India and South India. This route, which passes through the remote parts of Melghat tahsil, has connected Indore and Khandwa in Madhya Pradesh with Secunderabad in the Deccan *via* Akola, Hingoli and Purna. In the broader context it serves not only local transport but also assumes national importance.

Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur Route.

This broad gauge line emanates from the Bombay-Itarsi-Delhi route at Bhusawal and takes a general alignment towards the east through Buldhana, Akola, Amravati, Wardha and Nagpur districts of the Vidarbha region. It enters the south-west boundary of Amravati district at 646.96 kilometre (mile 402) from Bombay and runs towards the east. It crosses the boundary of this district at 727.42 kilometre (mile 452) and enters Wardha after crossing the Wardha river. In its length of about 80.47 kilometres (50 miles) in this district, it has eight railway stations. They are (with their distance from Bombay): Takli, 655 kilometres (407 miles), Badnera 663 kilometres (412 miles), Timbala 627 kilometres (418 miles), Malkhed 679 kilometres (422 miles), Chandur 692 kilometres (430 miles), Dipore 698.46 kilometres (434 miles), Dhamangaon 709.67 kilometres (441 miles) and Talni 719.38 kilometres (447 miles). This line traverses Amravati and Chandur tahsils.

The Murtizapur-Badnera section of this route was opened for traffic in 1865 and the Badnera-Pulgaon section in 1866*. The double line over the two sections referred to was constructed in 1915 and 1917, respectively. The line is laid with a permanent way with 40.82 kilograms (90 lbs.) rails on pot and plate sleepers.

The topography of the countryside through which this railway line passes is plain, even, and more dry than green. Hills or rocks cannot be found easily. It traverses fertile and black alluvial cotton soils. The line is not crossed by any major river nor is there any tunnel or any major bridge.

There is very heavy passenger and goods traffic on this line. The commercial importance of this line has increased to a considerable extent during the last 30 years or so. The passenger trains running daily on this line are: (1) Calcutta Mail *via* Nagpur, (2) Bombay-Howrah Express *via* Nagpur, (3) Bombay-Nagpur Express and (4) Two Bhusawal-Nagpur Passengers.

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*History of Indian Railways (1951): Ministry of Railways.

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Communications.
RAILWAYS.
Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur Route.
Badnera.

The location and commercial importance of Badnera and Dhamangaon railway stations are described below:—

Badnera is a junction on the Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur and Badnera-Amravati broad gauge railway lines. It is of considerable commercial importance and is an exporting station for commodities, such as, cotton, cotton-seed, oil, grains and pulses, oilcake and oranges. A considerable number of bales of cotton are exported from Badnera to Bombay, Nagpur and Sholapur. Railway communications have lent added importance to this town.

The station is nicely built and provided with four spacious platforms which are equipped with electric fans, light, potable water, tea-stalls and benches. There are upper class as well as third class waiting rooms equipped with all the necessary amenities to the travelling public. Vegetarian and non-vegetarian refreshment facilities are also provided. There are book stalls and fruit stalls also. The railway authorities have maintained a dispensary for the benefit of the railway staff and persons injured in railway accidents.

Badnera is included in the Bhusawal Division of the Central Railway. Jurisdiction of the Nagpur Division starts from Badnera.

Dhamangaon.

Dhamangaon is an important station, both as regards passenger traffic and goods traffic. Being in the heart of a very rich cotton cultivating area, there is brisk business in cotton. There are a number of ginning and pressing factories. Thousands of bales of cotton are exported from this station annually. The other important items of export are cotton-seed, oilcake, grains, pulses and timber. An average of about 25,401 metric tons (25,000 tons) of these articles are booked from Dhamangaon per year.

The station has two platforms which are adequately provided with amenities like potable water, tea-stalls, benches and waiting sheds. There is a fruit stall and a book stall. The station is also equipped with an upper class waiting room and a waiting hall for third class passengers.

Dhamangaon is linked by road routes with Yeotmal and Amravati. State Transport buses run daily from Dhamangaon to Yeotmal and Amravati.

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RAILWAYS.

Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur Route.

TABLE No. I

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS BOOKED AND THE TONNAGE OF GOODS CLEARED FROM ALL THE STATIONS ON THIS LINE IN THE DISTRICT

Stations	Number of passengers booked					Tonnage of goods cleared				
	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Takli	N. A.	44,212	43,429	44,908	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.	N. A.
Badnera	N. A.	484,918	525,824	546,668	N. A.	N. A.	23,147·66†† (22,782)	26,370·56†† (25,954)	2 37·87 (23,855)	N. A.
Timtala*	65,501	N. A.	69,618	71.738	66,699	..	..	..	..	
Malkhed	75,648	N. A.	79,731	73,788	79,870	5.080†† (5)	N. A.	†378	†290	411†
Chandur	182,646	N. A.	167,506	175,140	156,719	3,844·73†† (3,784)	N. A.	53,473†	†55,492	26,169†
Dipore*	48,656	N. A.	45,301	45,952	38,153	..	..	..	..	
Dhamangaon	314,320	N. A.	320,106	341,432	328,975	24,552·864† (24,166)	N. A.	†277,368	†287,519	†252,600
Talni*	66,659	N. A.	78,254	85 253	80,594	..	..	..	..	..

*Goods traffic was not booked from these stations.
†These figures are in Quintals.
††These figures are in metric tons.
Source : Divisional Superintendent, Nagpur Division, Central Railway.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. RAILWAYS. Badnera-Amravati Route.

This route of the Central Railway with a length of 9.6 kilometres (6 miles) emanates from the Bombay-Bhusawal-Nagpur main line from Badnera. It was opened for traffic in 1871 and was originally constructed to link the commercial, industrial and educational centre of Amravati with the main line at Badnera. It has opened for traffic the area which is extremely rich in agricultural resources. The line takes its course to the north from Badnera. There is no railway station between Badnera and Amravati. Quite a number of local trains run on this line.

Amravati.

Amravati is one of the important commercial centres of the Vidarbha region in Maharashtra. There is a heavy passenger and goods traffic. The outgoing traffic consists of fully pressed cotton, cotton-seed, oilcake, oil-seeds, grains and pulses and *kumkum* (red powder); whereas the incoming traffic consists of hardware, lime, stationery, cutlery, cloth, sugar, foodgrains, etc. The following statement gives an idea of the goods traffic at Amravati station:—

GOODS TRAFFIC AT AMRAVATI, FROM 1959 TO 1962.

(Figures in metric tons)

Year	Goods Booking		Parcels	
	Inward	Outward	Inward	Outward
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1959-60	183,811	148,761	3,185	2,855
1960-61	136,264	70,016	3,751	3,248
1961-62	115,072	57,687	3,269	2,732

Amravati railway station is provided with a spacious platform with amenities such as, electric lights, fans, potable water and benches. It is equipped with a waiting room for upper class passengers and a waiting hall for lower class passengers. There is a heavy passenger traffic to and from this station. The number of passengers booked from Amravati in the years 1959-60, 1960-61 and 1961-62 was 618.544. 650,694 and 688.449, respectively.

Murtizapur-Ellichpur Route.

The Murtizapur-Ellichpur railway route added to the prosperity and economic growth of the rich cotton tracts of the western zone of Amravati district. It has accelerated the growth of trade and commerce and facilitated passenger transport on a large scale.

This narrow gauge route emanates from the Bombay-Nagpur Calcutta broad gauge line from Murtizapur junction in Akola and finds its course towards the north. It covers a distance of about 64.37 kilometres (40 miles) from Bhujwad to Ellichpur, in Amravati.

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Communications.

RAILWAYS.

Murtizapur-Ellichpur Route.

The line was constructed in December 1913 by the former Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company for a Branch Line company called the Central Provinces Railway*. On termination of the contracts with the former Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company the line was brought under direct state management from July 1925, the Secretary of State for India having the authority to maintain and work the line. Though, known as the C. P. Railway, it was grouped in 1952 under the Central Railway.

The permanent way consists of 15.88 kilograms (35 lbs.) flat-footed steel rails laid on pressed steel peapod sleepers. The line is chiefly ballasted with broken stone and sand. *Murum* is also used as ballast for the sides. The sharpest curve is of 1.49 metres (4.78 feet) radius, the ruling gradient being 1 in 100.*

The topography of the countryside through which the line passes is plain with a few hills and may be described to be more dry than green. It finds its course to the north through the black and fertile tracts famous for cotton cultivation.

Before entering Amravati district the line crosses the Purna river. During its course in this district it crosses the Chandrabhaga river near Banosa (Daryapur) and again between Khusta Buzurg and Chamak railway stations. There is a well-built bridge on the line across the Sapan river at 74.03 km. (mile 46).

This line touches eleven railway stations in this district (distance from Murtizapur being given against each), *viz.*, Bhujwad 14.484 km. (9 miles), Banosa (Daryapur) 22.53 km. (14 miles), Lehagaon 28.9 km. (18 miles), Kokalda 35.4 km. (22 miles), Kapustalni 41.84 km. (26 miles), Anjangaon 49.89 km. (31 miles), Pathrot 59.55 km. (37 miles), Khusta Buzrug 65.98 km. (41 miles), Chamak 67.59 km (42 miles), Nawbagh 72.42 km (45 miles) and Ellichpur 75.64 km. (47 miles). Of these Banosa, Anjangaon and Ellichpur are of consequence.

Banosa.

A centre of trade and commerce, Banosa is an exporting station for cotton, cotton-seed and foodgrains. About two wagons per day are exported in the season to Bombay, Madura, Madras, Jalgaon and New Delhi. Oilcake is exported to Akola, Shegaon and Khamgaon. On an average 3,000 bales of fully pressed cotton are exported annually from this station. An average of 1,000 passengers are booked daily from Banosa. The station is equipped with an upper class waiting room, third class waiting hall, tea-stall and drinking water facilities.

Anjangaon.

Anjangaon, at a distance of 265.54 kilometres (165 miles) from Nagpur, exports cotton, cotton-seed and grains to Bombay, Madura, Madras and oilcake to Akola, Shegaon and Chalisgaon. The daily quantum of exports amount to one wagon. Fully

*History of Indian Railways, 1951, Ministry of Railways.

CHAPTER 7. Communications. RAILWAYS. Murtizapur-Ellichpur Route.

pressed cotton bales to the tune of 13,000 are exported every year. The daily passenger traffic from Anjangaon comes to about 900 persons.

The station provides amenities such as, a waiting hall, tea-stall and potable water.

Ellichpur.

The historic town of Ellichpur is 291.29 kilometres (181 miles) away from Nagpur. The commercial importance of this station can be judged from the fact that an average of five wagons are booked from this station daily. The outward goods traffic consists of cotton which is exported to Bombay, Kanpur and Shalimar; cotton-seed to New Delhi and Bombay; dry chillis to Shalimar, Gaya, Allahabad and Bombay. There is also brisk export of timber, rafters and *ballies*. Sizeable parcels of handloom cloth, *rosha* oil, coffee-seeds, mangoes, guavas and oranges are exported from Ellichpur. The *rosha* oil which is used as an ingredient in perfumes and a few medicines is in great demand in foreign countries, especially in France.

The Ellichpur station is equipped with amenities such as, a waiting hall for third class passengers, an upper class waiting room, tea-stall, potable water and cloak room. Ellichpur is served by road routes, *viz.*, Burhanpur-Amravati-Chanda road, Ellichpur-Morshi road and Ellichpur-Anjangaon road. The Chikhaldara hill station is linked by a motorable road with Ellichpur. The hill station is only 51.50 kilometres (32 miles) from Ellichpur. This proximity has added to its importance as a station of tourist traffic.

The following table gives the number of passengers booked and tonnage of goods exported from each station on this line for the years 1959-60, 1960-61 and 1961-62:—

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RAILWAYS.

Murtizapur-Ellichpur Route.

TABLE No. 2

STATISTICS OF PASSENGERS AND GOODS TRAFFIC DURING THE PERIOD, 1959—62.

Stations	Number of Passengers Booked			Tonnage of Goods		
	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Bhujwad*	14,668	21,864	26,070	..	..	..
Banosa	266,393	311,910	307,552	1,970·12 †(1,939)	4,233·88 (4,167)	3,899·60 (3,838)
Lehagaon*	26,839	34,860	40,228	..	..	..
Kokalda	79,984	97,108	92,761	60·96 (60)	36,58 (36)	54.87 (54)
Kapustalni	95,790	95,244	100,990	31·50 (31)	24·38 (24)	33·53 (33)
Anjangaon	202,150	251,022	267,971	2,014·83 (1,983)	4,309·70 (4,241)	1,179·63 (2,961)
Pathrot*	63,887	59,453	72,829	..	..	..
Khusta Buzrug* ..	37,126	48,691	64,392	..	..	..
Chamak*	7,989	11,411	14,333	..	..	..
Nowbagh* .. .	60,339	70,600	71,150	..	..	..
Ellichpur	89,570	113,084	117,528	4,452·32 (4,382)	5,655·33 (5,566)	8,936·16 (8,795)

*Goods were not booked from these stations.
†Figures given in brackets are in tons.

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RAILWAYS.

Khandwa-Akola-Purna Route.

This route of the Central Railway which was proposed about 55 years* ago connects the metre-gauge railway systems in North India and South India. This railway line was opened for goods traffic in November 1960 and for passenger trains in January 1961. It passes through the remote and hilly parts of Melghat tahsil. There are two railway stations, *viz.*, Wan Road and Dhulghat, falling in the civic limits of Amravati. The line covers a distance of about 35 kilometres (22 miles) in the district.

The number of passengers booked and volume of goods cleared from the two stations are given below:—

	Number of passengers		Goods (Quintals)	
	1961	1962 (up to June)	1961	1962
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Wan Road	8,517	3,961	3	6
Dhulghat	8,286	5,493	10	12

ROADS.

National Highways.

National highways are main trunk roads of national importance, running through the length and breadth of the country. They together form a system connecting major cities, capitals of states, major ports and other highways.

Bombay-Dhulia-Nagpur Road.

This is the only national highway passing through Amravati district. Leaving Nagpur and crossing Wardha district, it enters the eastern border of Amravati district at 105.20 kilometre (mile 65/3) where it crosses the Wardha river over a well-built bridge. It runs through the entire length of the district, about half the way from east to west and then in the south-west direction until it enters Akola district at 179.62 kilometre (mile 111/5). It covers a distance of about 74 kilometres (46 miles) in Amravati district and traverses Chandur Railway and Amravati tahsils. It touches the following places at the distance (mile number) indicated against them. Tiwsa 114.26 kilometre (M. 71 : D.B.†), Nandgaon Peth 140 kilometre (M. 87), Amravati 154.50 kilometre (M 96 · R.H. ‡ : CH §, D.B.†), Badnera 163.34 kilometre (M. 101/4 : D.B.†).

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction	Name and class of road
Tiwsa	(*i*) Tiwsa-Chandur Railway (M. D. R. ¶) (*ii*) Tiwsa-Riddhpur (M. D. R. ¶)
Nandgaon Peth	Amravati-Pandhurna (S. H.**)
Amravati	(*i*) Amravati-Burhanpur (S. H.**) (*ii*) Amravati-Chandur Railway (S. H.**)
Badnera	Amravati-Yeotmal (S. H.**)

*A similar line from Khandwa to Akola and Basim, shortly to be constructed, will also be of use to the remoter parts of the Melghat—Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, 1911.

†D. B.—District Bungalow.

‡R. H.—Rest House.

§C. H.—Circuit House.

¶M. D. R.—Major District Road.

**S. H.—State Highway.

This highway crosses the railway line near Badnera. There are two major bridges on this road, one on the Wardha river at 105.21 kilometre (mile 65/3) and another on the Pingali river at 114.26 kilometre (mile 71) near Tiwsa.

State Highways.

State highways are arterial roads of a state connecting other highways, headquarters of districts and cities. They serve as main routes of traffic to and from major roads. They are usually maintained by the State Government and are generally bridged and metalled.

There are six state highways in Amravati, *viz.*, (i) Amravati-Pandhurna road, (ii) Burhanpur-Amravati-Chanda road. (iii) Akot-Betul road, (iv) Dhamangaon-Yeotmal road, (v) Amravati-Chandur Railway road and (vi) Multai-Wardha road.

This state highway starts from Amravati, runs in the north-eastern direction and enters Chhindwara district of Madhya Pradesh at 109 kilometre (mile 67/6). It runs in common with the Bombay-Dhulia-Nagpur road a distance of 13.84 kilometres i.e. (8 miles and 5 furlongs) from Amravati to Nandgaon. Excluding this distance, it covers a length of 95.15 kilometres (59 miles and 1 furlong) in this district. It traverses the Amravati and Morshi tahsils.

Amravati-Pandhurna Road.

The Amravati-Pandhurna road touches the following towns and villages in its stretch at kilometre No. given against each: Nandgaon Peth, 13.28 kilometre (M. 8/2): Lehagaon, 37 kilometre (M. 23: D.B.): Morshi, 54.72 kilometre (M. 34: D.B.), Warud, 87.9 kilometre (M. 53/7) and Pusla, 98.37 kilometre (M. 61/1: D.B.).

The road crosses a number of rivers and there are as many bridges. They are located at following places at 41.44 kilometre (mile 25/6) on the Kashi river, 42.81 kilometre (mile 26/5) on the Charghad river, 87.49 kilometre (mile 54/3) on the Damayanti river, 60.57 kilometre (mile 37/5) on the Medu river, 70.81 kilometre (mile 43/8) on the Pale *nalla* and 91.93 kilometre (mile 57/1) on the Dhanodi *nalla*.

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction		*Name and class of road*
Nandgaon Peth	..	Bombay-Nagpur (N. H.*).
Lehagaon ..	..	Riddhpur-Tiwsa-Chandur Railway (M. D. R.).
Morshi ..	..	Morshi-Achalpur (M. D. R.).
Warud .	..	(i) Multai-Wardha (S. H.). (ii) Warud-Jalalkheda (M. D R.). (iii) Warud-Ashti (S. H.).

Burhanpur-Chanda Road

This highway starts from Burhanpur in Madhya Pradesh and enters Amravati district at 74.23 kilometre (mile 46/1) on the north-west border. It runs from the north-west to the south-east direction and enters Yeotmal district at 277 kilometre (mile 172/6).

*N.H.—National Highway.

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ROADS.
State Highways.
Burhanpur-Chanda Road.

It covers about 204.38 kilometres (miles 127*) in this district and traverses Melghat, Achalpur and Amravati tahsils. This road runs in common a distance of 9.66 kilometres (6 miles and a furlong) with the Bombay-Nagpur national highway from Amravati to Badnera.

It touches the following places in its stretch: Dharni, 85 kilometre (M. 53:D.B.); Harisal, 112 kilometre (M. 69/4:D.B.); Semadoha, 136 kilometre (M 84/6:D.B.); Ghatang, 156 kilometre (M. 96/7:D.B.); Paratwada, 180 kilometre (M. 112:D.B., R.H., C.H.); Achalpur, 183/46 kilometre (M. 114); Assegaon, 203 kilometre (M. 126/1:D.B.); Kalgaon 222 kilometre (M. 138); Amravati, 232 kilometre (mile 144:D.B., R.H., C.H.); Badnera, 240 kilometre (M. 149/3; D.B.) and Nandgaon, 267 kilometre (M. 165/6).

There are seven major bridges over this road, at 75.85 kilometre (mile 47/1) on the Gadga, at 109.65 kilometre (mile 68/1) on the Sipna, at 117.48 kilometre (mile 73) on the Kupti, at 140.60 kilometre (mile 87/3) on the Bhutkhora, at 190.71 kilometre (mile 118/4) on the Pilli, at 200.46 kilometre (mile 124/5) on the Purna and at 222.08 kilometre (mile 138) on the Pedhi. The road crosses railway line at 240.38 kilometre (mile 149/3.)

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction	*Name and class of road*
Harisal	Harisal-Akot (M. D. R.).
Paratwada	Akot-Betul (S. H.).
Achalpur	Achalpur-Chandur Bazar (M. D. R.).
Walgaon	(i) Walgaon-Chandur Bazar (M. D. R.). (ii) Walgaon-Daryapur (M. D. R.).
Amravati	(i) Amravati-Pandhurna (S. H.). (ii) Amravati-Chandur Railway (S. H.). (iii) Bombay-Nagpur (N.H.).

Akot-Betul Road.

This highway starts from Akot in Akola district and enters Amravati district at 13.28 kilometre (mile 8/2) on the western border to run towards the north-east until it leaves for Betul district at 75.97 kilometre (mile 47/2.) It covers a distance of 62.76 kilometres (39 miles) in Amravati district and passes through Daryapur and Achalpur tahsils. It touches the following towns and villages: Anjangaon, 27.76 kilometre (mile 17/2:D.B.): Pathrot, 38.62 kilometre (mile 24/6); Paratwada, 57.94 kilometre (mile 36:D.B., R.H., C.H.) and Kharpi 67.14 kilometre (mile 41/6.)

This road crosses the Sapan river over bridges at 56.11 kilometre (mile 34/7) and 56.54 kilometre (mile 35/1.) It crosses the Burhanpur-Chanda state highway at Paratwada.

*Net length of this Highway is 195 kilometres (121 miles).

ROADS.

State Highways.

Dhamangaon-Yeotmal Road.

This highway starts from Dhamangaon (a commercial town in this district) and runs towards the south a distance of 13 kilometres (8 miles and one furlong) to enter Yeotmal district. It traverses only the Chandur Railway tahsil. It touches the village Deogaon at 11.47 kilometre (mile 7/1) but does not cross any road in Amravati district.

Amravati-Chandur Railway Road.

This highway starts from Amravati and runs towards the south-east a distance of 29.77 kilometres (18 miles and 4 furlongs) up to Chandur railway station. It passes through Amravati and Chandur tahsils. It touches the village Pohra at 15.29 kilometre (mile 9/3). The Chandur-Kurha road (M.D.R.) emanates from it at Chandur. It does not cross any river.

Multai-Wardha Road.

This state highway starts from Multai in Betul district of Madhya Pradesh and enters the eastern sector of the northern border of Amravati at 25.75 kilometre (mile 16). It runs towards the south and crosses the Wardha river at 31 kilometre (mile 19/2) which serves as a border between Amravati and Wardha districts. The length of this road between Rajura at 47.47 kilometre (mile 29/4) and the Wardha river was completed recently. It covers a distance of 30.58 kilometres (19 miles) in this district and serves the Morshi tahsil only. It touches Warud at 38.62 kilometre (mile 24) and Rajura at 46.67 kilometre (mile 29). The Amravati-Pandhurna state highway crosses it at Warud. The Warud-Jalalkheda road (M.D.R.) emanates from it. In its stretch in this district there is no major bridge.

Major District Roads.

Major District Roads are roughly of the same specifications as state highways except that their surface may not be of the laid pattern and fully bridged. These roads connect important towns, centres of trade and commerce with railways and highways.

The important Major District Roads in the district are: (i) Harisal-Akot road, (ii) Walgaon-Daryapur road, (iii) Daryapur-Wadnergangai road, (iv) Daryapur-Murtizapur road, (v) Walgaon-Chandur Bazar road, (vi) Achalpur-Morshi road, (vii) Chandur Railway Riddhpur road, (viii) Kurha-Anjansinghi road, (ix) Warud-Jalalkheda road, (x) Daryapur-Dahihanda road, (xi) Amravati-Bhatkuli road and (xii) Shirala road.

Harisal-Akot Road.

This road emanates from the Burhanpur-Chanda road at Harisal and runs towards the south till it enters Akola district at 63.58 kilometre (mile 39/4). It covers a distance of 63.58 kilometre (39 miles and 4 furlongs) and runs through the forest areas of Melghat tahsil. There are two major bridges on this road namely, one on the Sipna at 1.60 kilometre (mile 1) and another on the Gadga at 22.53 kilometre (mile 13/8). It does not cross any road.

Walgaon-Daryapur Road.

This road emanates from the Burhanpur-Chanda highway at Walgaon and runs towards the west up to Daryapur, where it

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ROADS.

Major District Roads.

terminates. The total length of this road is 40.44 kilometres (25 miles and 1 furlong). It serves the transport needs of Amravati and Daryapur tahsils. In its stretch it touches Kholapur at 23.12 kilometre (mile 14/3) and crosses the Purna river over a major bridge near Kholapur.

Daryapur-Wadnergangai Road.

It starts from Daryapur and runs north-westward till it enters Akola district at 26.95 kilometre (mile 16/6). Total length of this road in Daryapur tahsil of this district is 26.95 kilometres (16 miles and 6 furlongs). It touches Wadnergangai in 23.74 kilometre (mile 14/6) and crosses the Chandrabhaga river. There is a bridge across this river. The road crosses the metre gauge railway line from Yeotmal to Achalpur, four furlongs from Daryapur.

Daryapur-Murtizapur Road.

Starting from Daryapur, this road finds its course to the south and after crossing the Purna river enters Akola district at 9.66 kilometre (mile 6). It covers a total distance of 9.65 kilometres (6 miles) in the Daryapur tahsil. In its stretch in Amravati district, it does not touch any village of significance. It crosses the metre gauge railway line (Yeotmal-Achalpur).

Walgaon-Chandur Bazar Road.

This road emanates from the Burhanpur-Chanda highway at Walgaon 9.66 kilometres (6 miles) north-west of Amravati, and runs a distance of 26.55 kilometres (16 miles and 4 furlongs) till Chandur Bazar. It traverses the Amravati and Achalpur tahsils, and touches Shirala at 14 kilometre (M. 8/6) and Kharala. There is no major bridge on this road.

Achalpur-Morshi Road.

Emanating from the Burhanpur-Chanda highway at Achalpur, this road runs towards the east to join the Amravati-Pandhurna road at Morshi. Total length of the road is 53.11 kilometres (33 miles). It traverses the Achalpur and Morshi tahsils. In its course from west to east it touches, (i) Chandur Bazar at 23 kilometre (mile 14/2: D.B.), (ii) Riddhpur at 28.56 kilometre (mile 17/6) and (iii) Asregaon at 45 kilometre (mile 28).

The following roads either take off from it or are crossed by it:—

Place of junction	*Name and class of road*
Chandur Bazar ..	Walgaon-Chandur Bazar (M. D. R.).
Riddhpur .. .	Riddhpur-Tiwsa (M. D. R.).

There is a major bridge on this road over the Shirasgaon *nalla* at 21.13 kilometre (mile 13/1). The road is not motorable during heavy rains, as there are a few unbridged crossings.

Chandur Railway-Riddhpur Road

This road emanates from the Amravati-Chandur highway at Chandur railway station and goes towards the north up to Rajurwadi at 48.49 kilometre (mile 30/1) after which it takes a bulge westwards until it reaches Riddhpur. The length of this road, which lies in Chandur and Morshi tahsils, is 72.62 kilometres (45 miles and one furlong).

Chandur Railway-Riddhpur Road.

It touches the following villages in its stretch: (i) Amla, 7.24 kilometre (M. 4/4); (ii) Kurha, 15.69 kilometre (M. 9/6); (iii) Tiwsa, 32.59 kilometre (M. 20/2: D.B.); (iv) Rajurwadi, 48.48 kilometre (M. 30/1) and (v) Lehagaon, 58.34 kilometre (M. 36/2 : D.B.).

This road crosses the Bombay-Nagpur national highway at 31.78 kilometre (mile 19/6) near Tiwsa and the Amravati-Pandhurna state highway at 58.34 kilometre (mile 36/2) near Lehagaon. The Kurha-Anjansinghi road (M.D.R.) takes off from it at Kurha and the Achalpur-Morshi road (M.D.R.) also touches it at Riddhpur.

There are two major bridges on this road, *viz.*, one across the Shendurjana river at 23.92 kilometre (mile 14/7) and another across the Bathoda river at 30.17 kilometre (mile 18/6).

Kurha-Anjansinghi Road.

It starts from Kurha, runs eastwards with a slight bulge towards the south and terminates at Anjansinghi. Its length is 12.66 kilometres (7 miles and 7 furlongs). It passes through Chandur tahsil only. The road neither touches any important place nor crosses any river.

Warud-Jalalkheda Road.

This road emanates from the Amravati-Pandhurna highway at Warud in Morshi and takes its course towards the east until it enters Nagpur district at 18.29 kilometre (mile 11/3). It further goes up to Jalalkheda in Nagpur district. During its entire stretch of 18.29 kilometres (11 miles and 3 furlongs) it passes through Morshi tahsil and touches the villages of Kurli, Surli and Wathod.

There are three major river-crossings on this road where bridges are under construction. The road is not motorable for about 2-3 months in the rainy season.

Daryapur-Dahihanda Road.

Starting from Daryapur, the road finds its course towards the west up to Dahihanda at a distance of about 20.28 kilometres (12 miles and 5 furlongs). In its east to west course, it traverses only the Daryapur tahsil. It neither touches any village of importance nor crosses any made road. It crosses the Chandrabhaga river over a well-built bridge near Daryapur at 2.0 kilometre (mile 1/2).

Amravati-Bhatkuli Road.

The Amravati-Bhatkuli road proceeds to the west from Amravati. It traverses a distance of 12.87 kilometres (8 miles) in Amravati tahsil and connects Amravati with Bhatkuli. It touches the village Malkapur. There is no river-crossing on the alignment of this road.

Shirala Approach Road.

It starts from a point at a distance of 14.26 kilometres (8 miles and 7 furlongs) from Walgaon on the Walgaon-Chandur Bazar road in eastern direction and serves as an approach road to the village of Shirala. Its total length is 2.82 kilometres (1 mile and 6 furlongs). The road is motorable throughout the year.

The following statement gives the details about the remaining Major District Roads in Amravati district:—

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ROADS.

Major District Roads.

TABLE No. 3

MAJOR DISTRICT ROADS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of the Road (1)	Starting Point (2)	Ending Point (3)	Total Length* (4)	Metalled Length* (5)	Unmetalled Length (6)	Major road which it approaches or crosses (7)	River it crosses (8)
Daryapur-Anjangaon Road ..	Daryapur ..	Anjangaon ..	27·36 (16·88)	27·36 (16·88)	Nil. ..	Daryapur-Wadner-gangai Road.	Nil.
Morshi-Ashti Road ..	Morshi .	District Border.	4·83 (3·00)	4 83 (3·00)	Nil. ..	Nil. ..	Nil.
Amravati Station Road ..	Amravati ..	Amravati .	4·42 (2·63)	4·42 (2·63)	Nil. ..	Amravati-Pulgaon Road.	..
Anjansinghi-Dhamangaon Road.	Anjangaon ..	Dhamangaon	14·26 (8·75)	14·26 (8·75)	..	Amravati-Burhanpur Road.	..
Kurha-Kaundanyapur Road	Kurha ..	Kaundanyapur.	10·05 (6·25)	10·05 (6·25)	..	..	..
Dhanora-Wadhona Road ..	Dhanora ..	Wadhona ..	21·89 (13·50)	21·89 (13·50)	..	Amravati-Yeotmal Road.	Bemla river.
Daryapur-Assegaon Road ..	Daryapur ..	Assegaon ..	34·76 (21·50)	34·76 (21·50)	..	Amravati-Burhanpur Road.	Nil.

*Figures given in brackets are in miles and those outside in kilometres.

Other District Roads, Ghatang-Chikhaldara Road.

Other District Roads are usually approach roads connecting villages and towns in the district. They are subject to frequent interruptions to traffic during the rains and have *murum* surfaces. They are designed to serve tahsil places and market centres. What follows is a descriptive account of some of them.

This road emanates from the Burhanpur-Chanda road at Ghatang and runs towards the west a distance of 23.33 kilometres (14 miles and 4 furlongs) up to Chikhaldara hill station. It traverses the Achalpur and Melghat tahsils. It does not touch any village nor does it cross any road. There is no bridge on this road.

Kharpi-Shirasgaon Road.

Emanating from the Akot-Betul road at Kharpi, it runs to the east until it reaches Shirasgaon at 13.46 kilometre (mile 8/3). It traverses a distance of 13.46 kilometres (8 miles and 3 furlongs) in Achalpur tahsil. It touches Karasgaon at 5.63 kilometres (mile 3/4) and does not cross any road or river.

Amravati Camp Road.

This branch road links Amravati town with the Camp area, and is 6.83 kilometres (miles 4/1) in length. It has assumed an added importance, as it serves the traffic needs of Amravati town. It criss-crosses a number of roads in the town.

Details about the remaining District Roads in the district are given in the following table:—

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Communications.
ROADS.
Other District Roads.

TABLE No. 4

OTHER DISTRICT ROADS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT MAINTAINED BY ZILLA PARISHAD (AS ON 24-1-63)

Name of the Road (1)	Starting Point (2)	Ending Point (3)	Total Length* (4)	Metalled Length* (5)	Unmetalled Length (6)	Major Road which it approaches or crosses (7)	Remarks (8)
Railway feeder Road ..	Daryapur	Banosa ..	1·21 (0·57)	1·21 (0·57)	..	Daryapur-Walgaon Road.	..
Assegaon-Chandur Bazar Road.	Assegaon	Chandur Bazar. ..	34·77 (21·50)	34·77 (21·50)	..	Amravati-Burhanpur Road.	..
Mahuli-Yaoli Road ..	Mahuli	Yaoli ..	5·77 (3·25)	5·77 (3·25)	..	Amravati-Pandhurna Road.	Motorable throughout the year.
Morshi-Palla Road ..	Morshi	Palla ..	4·83 (3·00)	4·83 (3·00)	..	Amravati-Pandhurna Road.	Do.
Takarkheda approach Road.	19·31 km (12 miles) from Amravati on Amravati-Burhanpur Road.	Takarkheda ..	4·19 (2·50)	Not known ..	Not known. ..	Amravati-Burhanpur Road	Do.
Talwel approach Road	At a distance of 18·50 km. (1 mile. 6 furlongs) from Walgaon on Walgaon-Chandur Bazar Road.	Talwel ..	2·20 (1·75)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Walgaon-Chandur Bazar Road.	Do.
Astegaon-Ambada Road.	Astegaon	Ambada ..	4·61 (2·25)	Do. ..	Do. ..	Achalpur-Morshi Road.	Do.

*Figures in brackets are in miles and those outside in kilometres.

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ROADS AND VEHICLES IN TOWNS.

Amravati city has a number of wide and well planned roads. But the older parts of the city still have narrow lanes for heavy traffic. In the other towns of the district, roads are hardly developed with a perspective of town planning.

The following statement gives the road length within the jurisdiction of the municipalities in the district:—

Town	Length		Total Length
	Metalled	Unmetalled	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	M. F.	M. F.	M. F.
Achalpur City ..	9 44 (5 7)	7 24 (4 4)	16 68 (10 3)
Achalpur Civil Station.	10 06 (6 2)	6 84 (4 2)	16 90 (10 4)
Amravati	93 34 (58 0)	40 23 (25 0)	133 57 (83 0)
Badnera	8 85 (5 4)	6 43 (4 0)	15 29 (9 4)
Chandur Bazar ..	1 60 (1 0)	1 60 (1 0)	3 20 (2 0)
Chandur Railway ..	8 05 (5 0)	4 83 (3 0)	12 87 (8 0)
Chikhaldara	0 59 (0 3)	18 67 (11 5)	19 31 (12 0)
Dhamangaon ..	11 80 (7 4)	7 03 (4 3)	19 09 (11 7)
Morshi	8 64 (5 3)	7 83 (4 7)	16 49 (10 2)
Warud	2 81 (1 6)	0 59 (0 3)	3 43 (2 1)

Of the roads in Amravati city, a length of about 3 kilometres (2 miles) is cement concrete, about 4.8 kilometres (3 miles) asphalted and 85 kilometres (53 miles) water bound macadam. The condition of roads in other towns is not very happy during the rainy season.

Before the advent of motor cars, *tonga* and *ekka* were the only means of public conveyance in Amravati. The *tonga* and *ekka* are drawn by a single horse. The *tonga* is more comfortable and can accommodate three persons. The *ekka* is smaller and can seat only two persons. In Amravati city there were about 90 *tongas* and *ekkas* registered with the municipality in 1961-62. Bicycles formed by far the largest number of private vehicles in Amravati city, *viz*., 7,000 in 1961-62. The number of bicycles in Achalpur and Warud was 789 and 500, respectively, in the same year. Bicycle-rikshaws* are mainly found in Amravati, Badnera and Dhamangaon. There were 900 rickshaws in Amravati city in 1961-62.

Amravati city has very few taxis. There is no town bus service in any of the towns in the district.

BRIDGES.

In the absence of the old records of bridge constructions it is not possible to mention the year of construction of all the bridges in the district. However an attempt has been made in the following statement to furnish the locational and constructional details of the major bridges† in Amravati district. All the highways and most of the major roads are provided with bridges and causeways across rivers and nallas.

Figures given in brackets are in miles and those outside in kilometres.

*A rikshaw mounted on a bicycle frame with two wheels at the back and one wheel in the front is pedal driven with an elongated chain working on two-toothed wheel in the back axle. It can accommodate two persons. Rikshaw pulling is a very strenuous job.

†Bridges with a linear waterway of more than 100 feet.

CHAPTER 7.
Communications.
BRIDGES.

TABLE No. 5

MAJOR BRIDGES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of the River (1)	Name of the Road (2)	Nearby village with distance (3)	Kilometres (4)	Number of spans and total length (5)	Width of roadway (6)	Average height of bridge (7)	Type of construction (8)	Year of construction (9)
Jhulla Nalla ..	Amravati-Yeotmal (S. H.).	Javra 3·22 (M. 2).	22·53 (M. 13 F. 8)	8 spans. 34·14 (112′).	5·94 (19′-6″)	2·44 (8′)	R. C. C. slab Submersible bridge.	1934
Nalla ..	Do. ..	Javra 4·19 (M. 2, F. 5).	24·50 (14 5)	6 spans. 31·09 (102′).	5·49 (18′-0″)	4·57 (15′)	Lime concrete arch with faces of bricks. High level bridge.	1930
Bemla ..	Do. ..	Nandgaon 4·83 (M. 3).	32·18 (19 8)	8 spans. 318·65 (1,045′).	5·94 (19′-6″)	3·35 (11′)	R. C. C. slab. Submersible bridge.	1935
Wardha ..	Bombay-Nagpur (N. H.).	Tiwsa 11·26 (M. 7).	104·60 (65 8)	21 spans. 183·18 (601′).	4·88 (16′-0″)	4·88 (16′)	Lime concrete arches. Submersible bridge.	Not known.
Purna ..	Amravati-Burhanpur (S. H.).	Assegaon ..	30·96 (19 2)	7 spans. 204·83 (672′).	5·49 (18′-0″)	Not known	Masonry in cement and steel girder decking. High level bridge.	Do.
Pedhi ..	Do. ..	Walgaon ..	11·05 (6 7)	6 spans. 222·20 (729′).	5·49 (18′-0″)	Do. ..	C. R. masonry arch bridge. High level bridge.	Do.

Pili ..	Do ..	Bhugaon ..	41·03 (25 4)	3 spans (242').	73·76	4·57 (15'-0")	7·47 (24'-6").	C. R. masonry ..	1880
Khutkhera ..	Do. ..	Semdok 5·42 (M. 3, F. 3).	91·10 (56 5)	4 spans. (133').	40·54	5·49 (18'-0")	3·962 (13')	High level bridge Brick arches with stone facing. High level bridge.	Not known.
Kurapeti ..	Do. ..	Harisal 8·05 (M. 5).	115·06 (71 5)	23 spans. (182').	55·47	6·40 (21'-0")	Not known.	Brick arches. Submersible bridge.	Do.
Sipna .	Do. ..	Harisal 1·40 (F. 7).	122·09 (75 7)	24 spans. (238').	72·54	6·40 (21'-0")	Do. ..	Do. ..	Do.
Gadga ..	Do. ..	Kusumkot 4·83 (M. 3).	155·30 (96 4)	34 spans. (406').	123·75	5·79 (19'-0")	Do. ..	R. C. C. slab. Submersible bridge.	1935
Sipan ..	Achalpur-Akot (S.H.).	Paratwada 1·61 (F. 8).	4·83 (2 8)	14 spans. (109').	33·23	5·49 (18'-0")	Do.	Brick masonry arches and end spans of slab stone vents. Submersible bridge.	Not known.
Sipan ..	Do. ..	Paratwada 1·82 (M. 1, F. 1).	5·04 (3 1)	17 spans. (138').	42·06	5·49 (18'-0")	Do.	Submersible bridge.	Do.
Pathar ..	Do. ..	Akot 3·62 (M. 2. F. 2).	54·31 (33 6)	6 spans. (105').	32·00	5·49 (18'-0")	Do.	K. B. in cement mortar, R. C. C. Slab decking. Submersible bridge.	Do.
Sipna ..	Akot-Selu-Harisal (M.D.R.).	Harisal 3·43 (M. 2, F. 1).	79·07 (49 1)	28 spans (261').	79·55	6·40 (21'-0")	Do.	Brick arches. Submersible bridge.	Do.

STATEMENT No. 5—*cont.*

Name of the River (1)	Name of the Road (2)	Nearby village with distance (3)	Kilometres (4)	Number of spans and total length (5)	Width of roadway (6)	Average height of bridge (7)	Type of construction (8)	Year of construction (9)
Gadga ..	Akot-Selu-Harisal (M.D.R.)	Selu (M. 2). 3·22	60·94 (37 7)	21 spans. 51·36 (168′-6″).	6·40 (21′-0″)	Not known.	Stone arches. Submersible bridge.	Not known.
Purna ..	Walgaon-Daryapur (M.D.R.).	Kholapur (F. 1). 0·21	22·53 (14 0)	4 spans. 42·37 (139′).	5·99 (19′-0″)	5·18 (17′)	R. C. C. beams and slabs. Submersible bridge.	1930-31
Kashi ..	Amravati-Pandhurna.	Lehgaon (M. 3). 4·83	41·44 (25 6)	6 spans. 39·93 (131′).	5·49 (18′-0″)	6·71 (22′)	Segmental stone arches. High level bridge.	Not known.
Charghad ..	Amravati-Pandhurna (S.H.).	Nimbhi (F. 2). 0·40	42·81 (26 5)	5 spans. 53·64 (176′).	5·49 (18′-0″)	10·36 (14′)	Do. ..	Do.
Damavanti ..	Amravati ..	Morshi (F. 3). 0·59	55·31 (34 3)	5 spans 35·36 (116′).	5·49 (18′-0″)	8·23 (27′)	Do. ..	Do.
Medu ..	Amravati-Pandhurna (S.H.).	Hivarkhed (M. 1, F. 8). 3·22	59·52 (37 5)	7 spans. 58·52 (192′).	4·57 (15′-0″)	7·92 (26′)	Do. ..	Do.
Pak Nalla ..	Do. ..	Omerker (F. 2). 0·40	70·81 (43 8)	4 spans. 35·36 (116′).	5·49 (18′-0″)	6·71 (22′)	Do. ..	Do.
Pingali ..	Amravati-Nagpur (N.H.).	Tiwsa (F. 1). 0·21	115·65 (71 7)	22 spans. 59·74 (196′).	6·10 (20′-0″)	1·83 (6′)	C. R. masonry Submersible bridge.	Do.

Shendurjana	Tiwsa-Kurha (M.D.R.). ..	Shendurjana ..	4·04 (3 1)	20 spans. (220′).	67·06	6·10 (20′-0″)	2·13 (7′)	Do. ..	Do.
Bathoda ..	Do. ..	Bathoda (F. 1). 0·21	10·25 (6 3)	7 spans. (117′).	35·66	5·49 (18′-0″)	5·49 (18′)	C. R. masonry arches. High level bridge.	Do.
Chandrabhaga.	Daryapur-Wadnergangai (M.D.R.)	Daryapur (M. 1, F. 2). 2·01	3 43 (2 1)	10 spans. (220′).	67·06	6·10 (20′-0″)	5·79 (19′)	R. C. C. Slab. Submersible bridge.	1949*
Shirasgaon Nalla.	Achalpur-Chandur Bazar (M.D.R.).	Chandur Bazar (M 2, F. 7). 4·61	21·13 (13 1)	5 spans. (111′).	33·83	6·10 (20′-0″)	3·66 (12′)	Cement concrete segmental arches. High level bridge.	1948†
Dhanodi Nalla.	Amravati-Pandhurna (S.H.). .	Dhanodi (F. 2). 0·40	51·94 (57 1)	5 spans. (138′).	42·06	6·71 (22′-0″)	4·26 (14′)	R. C. C. Slab with R. C. C. girders. Submersible bridge.	1957‡

*Cost of construction of the bridge was Rs. 1,24,131.

†Cost of construction of the bridge was Rs. 29,607.

‡Cost of construction of the bridge was Rs. 1,03,320.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT.

State Transport.

Among the public transport organisations the State Transport could be mentioned as one. The State Transport undertaking has been catering to the needs of passenger transport on an increasing scale. The undertaking is owned and managed by the Government of Maharashtra as a public utility concern run on commercial lines. The parent body, the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation is a statutory public corporation.

The nationalisation of passenger transport services in Amravati district dates back to 1946 when the Government of the Central Provinces and Berar took over the management of transport from the Central Provinces Transport Services. The undertaking was named as the Provincial Transport Services, Nagpur, in 1955. After the reorganisation of States in 1956, it was brought under the over-all control of the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation. The undertaking, alongwith the Marathwada State Transport Services, was merged with the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation from July 1, 1961.

Nationalisation of the services on various routes is progressing gradually, the objective being to bring all the routes under operation of the State Transport. By the end of December 1962, the Amravati depot had 40 vehicles operating on 12 routes.

The following table gives statistics of State Transport routes in the district in January 1963:—

Route (1)	Route Distance (Kilometres)* (2)	Number of return trips per day (3)	Number of persons travelled (4)
Amravati-Nagpur	154·496(96)	4	711
Amravati-Yeotmal	91·735 (57)	11	1,416
Amravati-Arvi	69·202 (43)	5	539
Amravati-Yaoli	24·140 (15)	5	300
Amravati-Achalpur	48·280 (30)	9	638
Amravati-Paratwada	49·890 (31)	17	1,298
Amravati-Chandur Railway	30·577 (19)	6	466
Amravati-Ner	57·936 (36)	3	246
Ner-Darwha	33·796 (21)	2	135
Chandur Railway-Talegaon	20·922 (13)	2	101
Talegaon-Dhamangaon	17·703 (11)	1	29
Chandur Railway-Dhamangaon	38·624 (24)	3	263

*Figures in brackets are in miles.

More and more routes, which are at present operated by private owners of transport services, are being gradually brought under the working of the State Transport Corporation.

The Corporation provides numerous amenities to the travelling public.

There are bus stations at Amravati and Achalpur. The light and heavy repairs of the vehicles are carried out at the Divisional Workshop at Nagpur. There is a depot workshop at Amravati where daily maintenance of vehicles are carried out.

Private Passenger Transport.

So far the Maharashtra State Transport Corporation has extended its operations only to a few routes. Private companies serve most of the transport needs of the people in the district. A number of routes are left exclusively for the private owners, whereas on a few routes the passenger traffic is shared between the State Transport buses and private services.

Passenger buses on as many as 65 routes are run at present by private companies. These companies work as private stage carriage operators. Transport services on these routes could not be nationalised due to shortage of passenger vehicles, and shortage of financial resources for construction of bus stands, depots, workshops, etc. The importance of state owned transport services in a welfare state was also not realised.

Under these circumstances the nationalisation of all the bus services will not only be beneficial to the public but also will be quite a profitable undertaking to the State.

The services rendered by the private buses are not up to the mark. Rules regarding safety of passengers, comforts and convenience are not properly observed. Over-crowding in buses is a frequent occurrence. The bus services, very often, are not regular.

The following statement gives routes covered by private companies in the district :—

TABLE No. 7

PASSENGER TRANSPORT SERVICES RUN BY PRIVATE AGENCIES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of the Agency and Number of Vehicles Owned	Name of Route	Route Distance (Kilometres)*	No. of Daily Trips
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Balwant Transport Company, Amravati (27 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Warud ..	88·52 (55)	3
	(2) Amravati-Chandur Railway.	69·20 (43)	4
	(3) Amravati-Daryapur .	148·06 (92)	1
	(4) Amravati-Anjansingi ..	69·20 (43)	1
	(5) Amravati-Morshi ..	54·72 (34)	2
	(6) Amravati-Khandwa ..	299·33 (186)	1
	(7) Amravati-Itarsi	260·71 (162)	1

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

PUBLIC TRANSPORT.

Private Passenger Transport.

TABLE No. 7—*cont.*

Name of the Agency and Number of Vehicles Owned (1)	Name of Route (2)	Route Distance (Kilometres)* (3)	Number of Daily Trips (4)
	(8) Amravati-Tiwsaghat ..	96·56 (60)	1
	(9) Amravati-Wani	215·65 (134)	1
	(10) Warud-Pandhurna ..	38·62 (24)	1
	(11) Warud-Shendurjana ..	11·27 (7)	1
	(12) Chandur Railway-Anjansingi.	28·97 (18)	1
	(13) Achalpur-Burhanpur ..	181·85 (113)	1
	(14) Achalpur-Akola	103·00 (64)	1
	(15) Tiwsaghat-Shendurjana	11·27 (7)	1
(2) Shrikrishna Transport Company, Amravati (12 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Karanja ..	67·59 (42)	1
	(2) Amravati-Washim ..	135·18 (84)	2
	(3) Amravati-Digras ..	131·97 (82)	1
(3) New Datar Transport Company, Amravati (10 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Pusad	164·0 (102)	1
	(2) Amravati-Washim ..	135·18 (84)	2
	(3) Amravati-Digras ..	131·96 (82)	1
(4) Peth and Company (3 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Multai ..	128·74 (80)	1
(5) Lokseva Transport Company, Amravati (32 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Chandur ..	37·01 (23)	10
	(2) Amravati-Kholapur ..	32·19 (20)	2
	(3) Amravati-Akola	115·87 (72)	1
	(4) Amravati-Khamgaon ..	168·98 (105)	1
	(5) Amravati-Daryapur ..	54·71 (34)	4
	(6) Daryapur-Akot	37·01 (23)	1
	(7) Achalpur-Akola ..	102·80 (64)	2
	(8) Achalpur-Akot	57·93 (36)	2
	(9) Achalpur-Shirasgaon ..	20·92 (13)	1
	(10) Kholapur-Akot	57·93 (36)	2
(6) Prabhat Transport Company, Amravati (30 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Daryapur ..	54·71 (34)	3
	(2) Amravati-Anjangaon ..	80·47 (50)	3
	(3) Amravati-Chandur Bazar	37·91 (23)	2
	(4) Anjangaon-Betul ..	148·06 (92)	1
	(5) Anajangaon-Akola ..	74·03 (46)	6
	(6) Daryapur-Akot	37·01 (23)	2
	(7) Paratwada-Betul	119·10 (74)	1
	(8) Paratwada-Bhaisdehi ..	62·76 (39)	1
	(9) Paratwada-Chikhaldara ..	51·49 (32)	1
	(10) Paratwada-Shirasgaon ..	20·92 (13)	5
	(11) Telhara-Anjangaon ..	77·25 (48)	1
(7) Shri Balwant Regular Motor Service, Amravati (30 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Morshi ..	54·71 (34)	2
	(2) Amravati-Warud ..	90·12 (56)	2
	(3) Amravati-Pandhurna ..	128·74 (80)	1
	(4) Amravati-Multai ..	128·74 (80)	2
	(5) Amravati-Itarsi	99·78 (62)	1
	(6) Amravati-Wani	215·65 (134)	1
	(7) Amravati-Akola	115·87 (72)	2
	(8) Amravati-Khamgaon ..	168·98 (105)	1
	(9) Amravati-Kholapur ..	32·18 (20)	1
	(10) Amravati-Chandur Bazar	37·01 (23)	2
	(11) Amravati-Walgaon ..	9·65 (6)	2
	(12) Achalpur-Betul	103·00 (64)	1
	(13) Daryapur-Akot	37·01 (23)	1
	(14) Kholapur-Daryapur ..	20·92 (13)	1
	(15) Warud-Shendurjana ..	11·26 (7)	2

TABLE No. 7—*cont.*

Name of the Agency and Number of Vehicles Owned	Name of Route	Route Distance (Kilometers)*	Number of Daily Trips
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
(8) Shriram Bus Service, Amravati (22 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Chikhaldara ..	99 78 (62)	1
	(2) Amravati-Khandwa ..	299·33 (186)	1
	(3) Amravati-Chandur Bazar	37·01 (23)	6
	(4) Amravati-Chandur Railway.	77 25 (48)	1
	(5) Amravati-Daryapur ..	54·71 (34)	3
	(6) Amravati-Walgaon ..	9·65 (6)	1
	(7) Amravati-Anjansingi ..	69·20 (43)	1
	(8) Achalpur-Karajgaon ..	9·65 (6)	2
	(9) Achalpur-Shirasgaon ..	20·92 (13)	4
	(10) Achalpur-Chikhaldara ..	51·49 (32)	1
	(11) Achalpur-Burhanpur .	181·85 (113)	1
	(12) Daryapur-Akot . ..	37·01 (23)	1
	(13) Dharni-Burhanpur ..	24 14 (15)	1
(9) Mathurdas Regular Motor Services, Amravati (15 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Pandhurna ..	128·75 (80)	1
	(2) Amravati-Betul	172·19 (107)	1
	(3) Amravati-Akola	115·87 (72)	1
	(4) Amravati--Chandur Railway.	69·20 (43)	3
	(5) Amravati-Badnera ..	9·65 (6)	40
	(6) Amravati-Vidarbha Mahavidyalaya.	4 82 (3)	6
(10) Datar Motor Service, Amravati (7 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Akola	115·87 (72)	11
	(2) Amravati-Darwha ..	104·61 (65)	2
	(3) Amravati-Karanja ..	67·59 (42)	1
(11) Shri Ganesh Motor Service, Amravati (7 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Shirala ..	25·75 (16)	2
	(2) Amravati-Chandur Railway.	30·58 (19)	2
	(3) Morshi-Paratwada .	57·94 (36)	2
(12) Vallabhadas and Company, Amravati (5 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Daryapur .	54·71 (34)	1
	(2) Daryapur-Akot	37·01 (23)	2
(13) Shri Ramchandra Motor Transport Company, Amravati (12 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Multai ..	128·75 (80)	2
	(2) Amravati-Morshi ..	54·71 (34)	1
	(3) Amravati-Warud ..	90·12 (56)	2
	(4) Amravati-Tiwsaghat ..	96·56 (60)	1
	(5) Amravati-Pusala . ..	99·78 (62)	2
	(6) Shendurjana-Tiwsaghat	6·43 (4)	1
	(7) Warud-Pandhurna ..	38·62 (24)	1
(14) Berar Regular Motor Service, Achalpur (8 Vehicles).	(1) Amravati-Daryapur .	54·71 (34)	1
	(2) Achalpur-Akola	103·00 (64)	4
	(3) Achalpur-Betul	119·09 (74)	1
	(4) Achalpur-Shirasgaon ..	20·92 (13)	1
	(5) Achalpur-Chandur Bazar	37·01 (23)	1
	(6) Achalpur-Karajgaon .	9·65 (6)	2
	(7) Achalpur City-Shirasgaon	27·35 (17)	1
(15) Mohammad Hanif and Bros., Achalpur (6 Vehicles).	(1) Achalpur-Shirasgaon ..	20·92 (13)	3
	(2) Achalpur-Dharni ..	85·29 (53)	1
	(3) Achalpur-Akot	37·01 (23)	1
	(4) Morshi-Paratwada ..	57·93 (36)	2
(16) B. S. Patil and Sons, Achalpur (5 Vehicles).	(1) Morshi-Paratwada ..	57 93 (36)	2
	(2) Morshi-Ambada	19·31 (12)	4

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Communications.
PUBLIC TRANSPORT.
Private Passenger Transport.

TABLE No. 7—*cont.*

Name of the Agency and Number of Vehicles Owned (1)	Name of Route (2)	Route Distance (Kilometres)* (3)	No. of Daily Trips (4)
(17) Deshmukh Bandhu Motor Service, Dhamangaon (2 Vehicles).	(1) Riddhpur-Tiwsa	40·23 (25)	..
(18) Janasewa Transport Company, Lehagaon (3 Vehicles).	(1) Riddhpur-Tiwsa	40·23 (25)	2
	(2) Riddhpur-Chandur Bazar	9·65 (6)	2
(19) Shirala Motor Service, Shirala (1 Vehicle).	(1) Amravati-Shirala ..	25·74 (16)	2

*Figures given in brackets are in miles.

Besides these private companies, there are six individual operators owning a few motor buses. Their operations are mainly confined to shorter routes.

RURAL TRANSPORT.

The facilities of transport in the rural areas were inadequate in the past. The village roads were mostly earthen tracks which were sometimes unusable in the rainy season even for cart traffic. However, during the last two decades considerable progress has been achieved and several schemes of road development are now under way. The construction of link roads is actively engaging the attention of the Government. Under the road development programme of the Five-Year Plans, a number of approach roads are constructed and a greater number of them are proposed.

Amravati district is endowed with better transport facilities than many other districts of Maharashtra.

The Bullock-cart was formerly the only means of transport for passenger traffic as well as for carriage of goods from and to the markets. The bullock-cart also known as *chhakda,* still continues to be the only conveyance for the cultivators produce to the markets, even though for purposes of trade, the motor trucks and railways have supplanted all slow-moving traffic through bullock-carts and horses. The statistics of bullock-carts in all the tahsils furnish an evidence of their importance in the rural transport. In July, 1962, the number of bullock-carts was 47,267 ; the tahsilwise break-up being, 10,926 in Amravati; 9,051 in Chandur ; 6,898 in Achalpur ; 6,011 in Daryapur ; 8.443 in Morshi and 6,938 in Melghat.

A big section of the middle class population uses bicycles. The motor-cycles and scooters have also been in use in rural as well as in urban areas.

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RURAL TRANSPORT.

On most of the motorable roads private transport companies as well as the State Transport Authorities are plying buses*. Towns and villages on most of the highways and major roads are, thus, served by buses. Moreover, approach roads from railway stations have lately been developed, with the result that the problem of rural transport has been eased to a great extent.

AIR TRANSPORT.

There is no airport in Amravati district. Nagpur is the nearest airport, about 153 kilometres (95 miles) from Amravati.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES.

The Government has provided considerable travel and tourist facilities in Amravati district. There are 43 rest houses maintained by the Government of Maharashtra. Primarily these rest houses are meant for Government Officers on duty. But they are also made available to the public. A nominal rent is charged to Government servants on duty. The rental charge is higher for the general public.

There are circuit houses at Amravati, Chikhaldara and Achalpur They are provided with furniture, crockery, utensils and electric fans. The Buildings and Communications Department maintains rest houses at the following places:—

(1) Achalpur,	(2) Amravati,	(3) Anjangaon,
(4) Assegaon,	(5) Badnera,	(6) Belkund,
(7) Benoda,	(8) Chandur Bazar,	(9) Chandur Railway,
(10) Chikhaldara,	(11) Daryapur,	(12) Dharni,
(13) Dhamangaon,	(14) Ghatang,	(15) Harisal,
(16) Khatkali,	(17) Morshi,	(18) Pusala,
(19) Semadoh,	(20) Sawarkheda,	(21) Tiwsa.

Bungalows maintained by the Forest Department are situated at:—

(1) Chikhaldara,	(2) Buturum,	(3) Chaura Kund,
(4) Chunkhadi,	(5) Dhakana,	(6) Dhargarh,
(7) Hatru,	(8) Jarida,	(9) Koktu,
(10) Kolkaz,	(11) Mahendri,	(12) Makhala,
(13) Patulda,	(14) Pohra,	(15) Rahu,
(16) Raipur,	(17) Rangarao,	(18) Rangobeli,
(19) Tarobanda.		

These rest houses are usually equipped with furniture, mattresses, utensils and crockery.

Chikhaldara, the only hill station in Vidarbha and the adjoining region of Madhya Pradesh is a nice holiday resort and a place of tourist importance. Hundreds of holiday makers visit the place as an escape to a pleasant and nourishing atmosphere from the heat of the surrounding region. Chikhaldara† is rich in panoramic and scenic beauty and provides beautiful landscape. Realising the importance of this place as an excellent holiday resort, the Department of Tourism of the Government of Maharashtra has maintained a few holiday camps there for the public. The holiday camps provide independent residential accommodation. The occupants are required to pay moderate rental charges.

*The Directory of Villages and Towns given at the end of the Volume also gives the nearest bus stand and the nearest railway station to each village and town in the district.

†More details given in Chapter 19—Places.

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Communications.

Besides, a few lodging and boarding houses have also come up during the last few years. The tourists' season at Chikhaldara is spread over the months of October-November and March—May.

GOODS TRANSPORT.

Transport of goods and merchandise is not undertaken by the State Transport Organisation. Besides railways*, goods transport is in the hands of private owners of motor trucks. The total number of goods vehicles, both public and private carriers, registered and licensed in the district was 683 in 1962. Of these, 546 were motor trucks and 137 were transport trailers. Freight rates are not determined by any official body, but are allowed to be governed by the principles of demand and supply.

Motor trucks in this district carry goods and merchandise to and from distant places, such as, Bombay, Poona, Chhindwara, Betul, Itarsi, Khandwa, Nagpur, Chanda, Yeotmal, Akola, Jalgaon, Jabalpur, etc.

Due to the shortage of railway wagons and the delay involved in railway transport, businessmen and traders find it convenient to transport their goods by motor trucks.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

There is a postal division of the Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department at Amravati. This division comprises Amravati, Wardha and Yeotmal districts and is known as East Berar Division. The various sub-offices, branch offices and combined post and telegraph offices are enumerated tahsilwise in the following list.

POST-OFFICES IN EACH TAHSIL OF AMRAVATI DISTRICT.

(1) *Amravati tahsil:*

(A) *Sub-offices*—

†(1) Amravati, †(2) Amravati Camp, †(3) Bhaji Bazar, †(4) Cotton Market, †(5) Nandgaon Peth, †(6) Rajapeth, †(7) Rukmininagar, †(8) Sabnis Plots, †(9) Sakkarsath, †(10) Shivajinagar, †(11) Takhatmal Estate, †(12) Vidarbha Mahavidyalaya, †(13) Ambapeth, (14) Badnera, (15) Badnera town, (16) Kholapur, (17) Jhugaon.

(B) *Combined Post and Telegraph Offices*—

H(1) Amravati, H(2) Amravati Camp, (3) Nandgaon Peth, (4) Sakkarsath, (5) Takhatmal Estate, H(6) Walgaon, H (7) Badnera, (8) Badnera Town.

(C) *Branch Offices*—

(1) Ashti, (2) Bhatkuli, (3) Brahmanwada Govindpur, (4) Dawarnagar, (5) Dhamori Kasba, (6) Ganoja, (7) Ganori, (8) Hartala, (9) Kekarlpur, (10) Mhaispur, (11) Rahatgaon, (12) Sukli, (13) Wathoda Shukeshwar, (14) Jakashaljapur, (15) Adgaon, (16) Deora, (17) Deora Antora, (18) Mahuli Jahagir, (19) Salora Khurd, (20) Yavli, (21) Alangaon, (22) Jalka Hirapur,

*Statistics of goods transport by railways are given in the section on Railways.
†These sub offices are in Amravati City.

(23) Kharala, (24) Khar Talegaon, (25) Nandura Bk., (26) Naya Akola, (27) Pusala, (28) Saur, (29) Shirala, (30) Takarkheda, (31) Waigaon, (32) Anjangaonbari, (33) Bhankheela Khurd, (34) Chikhli Vaidya, (35) Dabha, (36) Dadhi, (37) Dhanora Gurao, (38) Januna, (39) Lonitakli, (40) Mahuli (Chorachi), (41) Majri Mhasla, (42) Mangrul Chawala, (43) Mokhad, (44) Nanogaonkazi, (45) Palasmandal, (46) Papal, (47) Pareli, (48) Phulmala, (49) Pimpalgaon Nipani, (50) Pimpri Kalga, (51) Pimpri Nipani, (52) Phulgaon, (53) Salod, (54) Sarsi Kothoela, (55) Seoni Rasulpur, (56) Uttamsara, (57) Veniganeshpur, (58) Wadura, (59) Asra, (60) Sayat, (61) Nim, (62) Wakiraipur, (63) Rama, (64) Khalkon.

(2) *Achalpur tahsil* :

(A) *Sub-offices*—

(1) Achalpur, (2) Achalpur City, (3) Vidarbha Mills, (4) Karajgaon, (5) Sirasgaon Kasba, (6) Chandur Bazar.

(B) *Combined Post and Telegraph Offices*—

H(1) Achalpur, (2) Achalpur City, (3) Chandur Bazar, H(4) Karajgaon.

(C) *Branch Offices*—

(1) Belaj, (2) Bhugaon, (3) Borgaon Peth. (4) Gaulkheda, (5) Dahigaon Purna, (6) Dhamangaon, (7) Kawtha, (8) Karanjabehram, (9) Kurha, (10) Parsapur, (11) Pathrot, (12) Rajna, (13) Sarjapur, (14) Talni Purna, (15) Tuljapur Gadhi, (16) Wadgaon Fatehpur, (17) Wasni Bk., (18) Bopapur. (19) Chamak Bk., (20) Haroon, (21) Kakela, (22) Kolha, (23) Kushta Bk., (24) Rasegaon, (25) Sarmaspur, (26) Sindi Bk., (27) Asadpur, (28) Asegaon, (29) Khairi, (30) Sawlapur, (31) Yesurna, (32) Brahmanwadathadi, (33) Deuswada, (34) Ghatladki, (35) Kural, (36) Madhan, (37) Pimpri, (38) Sirasgaon Band, (39) Sonori, (40) Surli, (41) Wani, (42) Jaolashahapur, (43) Talwel.

(3) *Chandur Tahsil* :

(A) *Sub-offices*—

(1) Chandur (R.S.), (2) Gurukunj Ashram, (3) Tiwsa, (4) Dhamangaon (R.S.).

(B) *Combined Post and Telegraph Offices*—

(1) Chandur (R.S.), (2) Gurukunj Ashram, (3) Dhamangaon (R.S.), (4) Talegaon.

(C) *Branch Offices*—

(1) Amlavishveshwar, (2) Anjanwati, (3) Jalkajagtap, (4) Kawadayawhan, (5) Kawath Kadu, (6) Kurha, (7) Malkhed, (8) Manjarkhed, (9) Murtazapur Taroda, (10) Palaskhed, (11) Shendurjana bazar, (12) Sirasgaon Korde, (13) Varha. (14) Mardi, (15) Maozari, (16) Shendola Bk., (17) Sirasgaon Mojari, (18) Shiwangaon, (19) Thakur Talegaon, (20) Jaora, (21) Satargaon, (22) Warkhed, (23) Anjansinghi, (24) Ashoknagar, (21) Bhakule Renukapur,

(26) Ghuikhed, (27) Jalkapatache, (28) Jaola, (29) Juna Dhamangaon, (30) Kovle, (31) Mangrul Dastgir, (32) Nimbhora Bodka, (33) Nimboli, (34) Nigawhan, (35) Pimpalchata, (36) Satelfal, (37) Shendurjana Dhanodi, (38) Tiwra, (39) Virul Ranghe, (40) Wadhona, (41) Zada, (42) Dhamak, (43) Dhanorafasi, (44) Dhanora Mogal, (45) Kawtha, (46) Rajura, (47) Sultanpur Nandurabad, (48) Yeoti, (49) Yerad, (50) Talegaon Dashasar.

(4) *Daryapur Tahsil*:

(A) *Sub-offices*—

(1) Anjangaon, (2) Daryapur, (3) Daryapur Town, (4) Yeoda.

(B) *Combined Post and Telegraph Offices*:—

(1) Anjangaon, H (2) Daryapur, (3) Yeoda.

(C) *Branch Offices*—

(1) Bhandaraj, (2) Chincholi Bk., (3) Chowsala, (4) Dahigaon Recha, (5) Dhanegaon, (6) Gawandgaon, (7) Gawhan, (8) Hantoda, (9) Kapustalni, (10) Karla, (11) Nimkhed Bk., (12) Pandhri, (13) Sategaon, (14) Surji Anjangaon, (15) Takarkheda More, (16) Vihigaon, (17) Amla, (18) Babhli, (19) Banosa (20) Dhamodi, (21) Ilkiantargaon, (22) Kalashi, (23) Kalgavhan, (24) Kamalpur Troeta, (25) Kanholi, (26) Khallar, (27) Nalwada, (28) Kokarda, (29) Kumbhargaon, (30) Lehgaon, (31) Mahalidhande, (32) Nimbhari, (33) Sanglood, (34) Shiwar, (35) Sonegaon, (36) Takli, (37) Thilori, (38) Wadnergangai, (39) Warud Bk., (40) Arola, (41) Chendvapur, (42) Darapur, (43) Markanda, (44) Nandeel Bk., (45) Shinganapur, (46) Adala Bazar, (47) Bhamod, (48) Jainpur, (49) Pimplod, (50) Ramtirth, (51) Sasan, (52) Umri Maindabad.

(5) *Melghat Tahsil*:

(A) *Sub-offices*—

(1) Dharni, (2) Chikhaldara.

(B) *Combined Post and Telegraph Offices*—

(1) Chikalda.

(C) *Branch Offices*—

(1) Gaulkhed Bazar, (2) Harisal, (3) Semadoh, (4) Bodfarm, (5) Kalamkhar, (6) Sadrabad, (7) Churni, (8) Kalkambh.

(6) *Morshi Tahsil*:

(A) *Sub-offices*—

(1) Morshi, (2) Shendurjanaghat, (3) Warud, (4) Katpura, (5) Lehegaon, (6) Mangral Bhilapur, (7) Nerpingalai, (8) Nimbhi, (9) Pimpalkhata, (10) Porgawhan, (11) Rajurwadi, (12) Sirkhed, (13) Vichori, (14) Naya Wathoda, (15) Amboda, (16) Benoda, (17) Dapori, (18) Hiwarkhed, (19) Jambgaon, (20) Jarud, (21) Karajgaon, (22) Khanapur, (23) Khed, (24) Loni, (25) Margral, (26) Pala, (27) Pareli, (28) Taroda, (29) Satnoer, (30) Chandur Wathoda, (31) Ekdara.

(B) *Combined Post and Telegraph Offices*—

H (1) Morshi, H (2) Warud, (3) Jarud.

(C) *Branch Offices*—

(1) Gadegaon, (2) Haturna, (3) Pavni, (4) Pusala, (5) Rajira Bazar, (6) Surli Bazar, (7) Tembhurkheda, (8) Ashtoli, (9) Belura, (10) Rithpur.

H.—Offices marked by 'H' alphabet are authorised to accept telegrams in Hindi.

The following table gives information about the number of connections handled by the various telephone exchanges in the district.

TABLE No. 8

TELEPHONE EXCHANGES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT (IN 1963)

Location of exchange	Number of connections from the exchange
Amravati	854
Anjangaon	17
Badnera	24
Chandur	18
Daryapur	30
Dhamangaon	49
Ellichpur	67
Warud	31

There are Public Call Offices at Chikhaldara, Morshi, Mozri, Talegaon Dashasar and Yeola. The relevant details about them are given below:—

TABLE No. 9

PUBLIC CALL OFFICES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT (IN 1963)

Location of the Public Call Office	Number of connections	Trunk Connections
(1)	(2)	(3)
Chikhaldara	5	Achalpur.
Morshi	9	Amravati.
Mozri	1	Amravati.
Talegaon Dashasar	1	Dhamangaon.
Yeola	1	Daryapur.

CHAPTER 7.

Communications.

COMMUNITY RADIO SETS.

Community radio sets play an important role as a powerful medium of education and enlightenment of the masses. They are also helpful in a campaign of rural education which is being imparted through programmes broadcast from the Akashvani. Under the Rural Broadcasting Contributory Scheme of the Government of Maharashtra, community radio sets are supplied to grampanchayats or other organised bodies in villages. The Publicity Department, which is in charge of implementation of the scheme, installs the radio sets and provides for maintenance and repairs. The concerned parties are required to contribute Rs. 175 for a dry battery set and Rs. 150 for an electric set initially. They have also to contribute Rs. 60 for maintenance, repairs, provision of dry batteries and radio licence for the set, every year.

Ownership of the community radio sets rests with the Government. The sets are meant exclusively for the use of village people. The listeners are required to tune programmes for villagers relayed from the Akashvani (All India Radio).

The following is the tahsilwise list of villages where the community radio sets have been installed (August 1964):—

Amravati Tahsil: Palasmandal, Dhanora Gurao, Kekatpur, Ashti, Takarkheda Sambhu, Brahmanwada Govindpur, Uttamsara, Kholapur, Januna, Mahuli Jahagir, Mahuli Chor, Tapowan, Mangrul-Chavala, Mhaispur, Masod, Devra, Hartala, Nandura, Peshwa, Fulamala, Budagad, Bhatkuli, Karajgaon, Sanskar Kendra, Badnera, Asra, Sukli, Vanarshi, Sayat, Chinchkhed, Pohara Bandi, Jalka Hirapur, Katamla, Marki, Ganoja, Virshi, Rohankheda, Pardi, Hirapur, Kanphodi, Kovla-Jateshwar, Kavatha Bahale, Wathod Sukleshwar, Takli Bk., Wardha (Nandura Pinglai), Dahigaon.

Morshi Tahsil: Khanapur, Ner Pinglai, Khopda, Dapori, Khed, Kolvihir, Nimbhi, Pala, Chincholi Gavali, Ladki, Lehegaon, Shirkhed, Hiwarkhed, Benoda, Karajgaon, Utkhed, Mangruli Peth, Pimpalkhuta, Porgavan, Tiwsaghat, Rajura Bazar, Vichori, Rohankhed, Yawali, Taroda, Savarkhed, Ashtoli, Pavani, Wagholi, Gadegaon, Haturna, Wadala, Bhilapur, Ghodgavan, Goregaon, Deotwada, Gorla, Balora, Khadka, Ittamgaon, Vishnora Dabheri, Yeoti, Domak, Waghal, Shingori, Aloda, Kati, Katsur, Ghorad, Chincholi Kale, Loni, Wathoda, Patur, Simbhora, Bargaon, Belora, Dhaga, Umarkhed, Wadegaon, Udapur, Amadapur, Chandas Wathoda, Bahada, Salbardi, Ekdara.

Melghat Tahsil: Gaulkheda, Telkhar, Sanskar Kendra, Chikhaldara, Aladoh.

Daryapur Tahsil: Yeoda, Gaiwadi, Darapur, Kokarda, Sasan Ramapur, Samda, Kasampur, Khallar, Shingnapur, Takarkheda More, Vihigaon, Sategaon, Kapus Talni, Khirada, Borala, Arala, Kumbhargaon, Kasbegavan, Panora, Lakhad, Nanded Bk., Chausala, Murha, Bembla Bk., Chincholi-Shingore, Sangawa Bk., Nimbhari, Vanoja, Bhandaraj, Nandrun, Lakhanwadi, Bhamod, Chincholi Bk., Shinganwadi, Karla,

Warud Bk., Ramtirth, Kalashi, Shirajda, Taroda, Turkhed, Thilori, Sanglud, Sasan Bk., Lotwada, Pimpalgavan, Jainpur Sakhari, Kalamgavan, Nachona, Amla, Uprai, Pimpalkhuta, Hantoda, Lehegaon, Khirgavan, Ghada, Matragaon, Kalgavan, Rahimapur Chincholi, Umri Mamdabad, Nalwada, Kanholi, Karatkheda, Lasur, Narsingpur, Belora, Chandola, Naigaon, Pohi.

Achalpur Tahsil: Parsapur, Haram, Wadgaon Fattepur, Chamak Bk., Asegaon Purna, Talwel, Shirasgaon Band, Talegaon Mohana, Krishnapur, Kashe Bopapur, Yesurna, Sonori Sultanpur, Jasapur, Nanori, Madhan, Boregaon Dori, Borala, Vishroli, Tuljapur Gadhi, Asadpur, Naigaon Bordi, Thugaon Pimpri, Bhugaon, Tajna Purna, Boregaon Peth, Kharala, Dahegaon Purna, Bhilona, Pimpri, Brahmanwada, Banoja Bk., Wagdoh, Vasni Bk., Donoda, Jawardi, Kavatha, Nijampur, Pimpalkhuta, Wani, Nimbhora, Kural, Hayapur, Masod Akhatwada Dattapur, Balgaon, Gaurkheda, Khanjamanagar, Kolha, Brahmanwada-Thadi, Savli Najik Datura, Salepur, Malhara, Jagannathpur, Hirur Kasba, Nimbhari, Kandli, Kushta Bk., Yelki Purna, Kushta Kd., Tuljapur, Upatkheda, Yeota, Bodad Subhanpur, Kasampur, Haidatpur.

Chandur Tahsil: Songaon, Talegaon Dashsahastra, Maroda, Shendola Kd., Chincholi, Zadgaon, Shendurjana Bazar, Amla Vishweshwar, Rajura, Wathod Kd., Juna Dhamangaon, Oknath, Raipur Kasarkheda, Dighi, Sonegaon, Kharda, Malkhed Rly., Waghoda, Asegaon, Nimboli, Shidodi, Warud Bagaji, Palaskhed, Dhamantri, Boregaon Nistane, Chinchpur, Zada, Shirasgaon Korde, Yeoti, Nimbhora Delwadi, Boregaon Dhande, Jalka Patache, Savanga Vithoba, Bhatkuli, Varuda, Sultanpur Khatkheda, Wani, Bharwadi, Kaundanyapur, Dhanora Mogal, Dapori, Ashok Nagar, Belora, Malegaon, Bimbha, Dhotra, Vitala, Dhamak, Shelu Natwa, Usalgavan, Satargaon.

CHAPTER 8 — MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

CHAPTER 8.

Miscellaneous Occupations.

INTRODUCTION.

An attempt is made in this chapter to give a broad account of certain selected miscellaneous occupations such as tailoring, flour-milling, hair-cutting, hotel-keeping, gold and silver-smithy, etc. These occupations are typically urban in characteristics and have much impact on the economy of the district. They are enumerated in census reports under various classes such as Industry, Trade, etc. During the last forty years many such establishments have come up. A change has also taken place in the structure, composition and character of a few of them. Not only has the number of such occupations gone up but the employment in them has also increased. With the break-up of the joint family system, the attraction of city life which induced the people from rural areas to migrate to the cities, the industries--small and big--which sprang up and a change in food habits of the people, the number of catering establishments has increased. The change in the mode of dress has given rise to a number of shops dealings in ready-made clothes. The change in the mode of conveyances such as cycles and motors has widened the activity and scope of the cycle and motor-repairing shops. The census reports of 1911, 1921, 1931 have given lists of occupations such as hotels and restaurants, cycle-repairing, milk and sweetmeat selling, tailoring, hairdressing, gold and silversmithy, painting, laundering, flour-milling and the like. Most of the craftsmen and traders included in these categories are engaged in production of goods of daily consumption or in rendering some useful service to the society. A smaller number engaged in vocations like law, medicine, education, journalism or employed in Government departments, municipalities, etc., also serve a social purpose. The rapid growth of such occupations is both a factor in the pace of urbanisation and an index of the degree of prosperity and economic stability of the district.

A sample survey of the following selected occupations was conducted in Amravati, Badnera, Achalpur, Daryapur, Anjangaon, Chandur, Chandur-bazar, Dhamangaon, Morshi, Warud, Shendurjana, Paratwada, Malkapur, Karanja and Sirasgaon with a view to presenting a broad picture of economic conditions prevailing in these occupations. Samples were taken from different localities which were representative of sizes and

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types. A general questionnaire was framed on the basis of which the data was collected from each of the selected samples. The occupations selected were: (1) Hotels and restaurants, (2) Lodging and boarding, (3) Tailoring, (4) Hair-cutting, (5) Dhobis and laundry services, (6) Pan and bidi-making, (7) Bakery, (8) Cycle-repairing, (9) Sweetmeats making, (10) Rice-pounders, huskers and flour-grinders, (11) Domestic servants, (12) Religious professions and (13) the learned professions such as Doctors, Lawyers and Teachers.

Many of these occupations combined trade and industry. They are described in regard to their employment, earnings, equipment, wages, raw materials, organisations, etc.

HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS.

Hotelling has become a flourishing business in recent times. This may be due to a number of factors such as increasing economic activity and multiplicity of business transactions, increase in the facilities of transport and communications, change in the habits and tastes of the people, business tactics, the present mode of reception, etc. This is revealed by the rapidly increasing number of establishments and persons engaged in them over the past few years.

Except for a few small villages, tea-shops or similar establishments are found in almost all parts of the district. Their general get-up, firstly, depends much on their daily turnover and secondly, on the clientele, local or otherwise. Thus, there are number of tea-shops spread in the district and they fall into numerous categories. Some shops serve only hot drinks like tea, coffee, etc., some others sell hot drinks as well as cold beverages with snacks and in a few cases they serve meals too.

Tea-shops in the rural areas have their special characteristics. They are usually small and ill-equipped and do not present a very happy picture. Two or three benches constitute their furniture and they possess utensils and a little crockery of inferior quality. Sometimes it is very difficult to make out a tea-shop in a village, as it assumes the form of a hut thatched with grass or ordinary tiles or sometimes tin sheets. These shops serve a limited number of eatables, mostly *shev*, *chivda*, *ladu*, *papad*, etc. In some of the hotels fresh items like *bhajia*, *usal*, *alu-bonda*, etc. are also prepared once a day though they concentrate on serving tea. Tea-shops are usually situated near a bus-stand, if any, or near the bazar. The villagers halt there to take rest and have a cup of tea, with sugar or gur, as the case may be. The business being inconsequential, the so-called proprietor of the shop also acts as a cashier, accountant, manager, cook, service-boy, etc.

On the other hand, tea-shops in urban areas present a different picture. They are better housed and sell a variety of eatables—fresh and dry. Their furniture consists of chairs, tables, glass-cupboards and a counter at the entrance. Their equipment also comprises good type of crockery, big utensils of brass and copper and a number of small utensils like glasses, spoons,

plates, etc. Facilities like wash-basin, fans are also provided in some hotels or restaurants. They employ different persons for different jobs such as manager, cooks, waiters, etc. Big hotels are decently run by making them attractive to customers. Such hotels have a separate kitchen on the backside of the premises and they prepare special dishes. In such restaurants, customers can relax comfortably as they are provided with radios, cushioned furniture, separate small rooms and excellent service. However, the rates charged by such hotels are pretty high and as such they are not within the reach of common customers. Such hotels, however, are very few in Amravati district. In Amravati city proper and in other towns like Badnera, Morshi, Daryapur, etc., mostly medium-sized hotels are found. They are established on what is known as the North Indian style. A majority of the preparations like *bhajia, shev, chakli, jilebi* are made just on either side of the entrance of the shop which can clearly be seen from outside. However, they do maintain a separate kitchen for some other preparations. The rates charged by these shops are reasonable. Such establishments are found almost in every corner of the important streets, in the bazar area, near office buildings, railway stations and bus-stands and bus-stops.

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The occupation provided employment to 359 persons in 1911 according to the census data. The 1931 census records the total number of such persons as 574. The number increased to 1,468 in 1951 according to the census figures. The persons employed consist of owners, managers, cooks and unskilled workers like waiters and service-boys. The 1961 census returns the persons in this occupation as 7,781 out of which 1,691 are employed in urban area.

Accessories.

Accessories comprise rice, wheat, gram-flour (*besan*), semolina (*rava*), *dalda*-ghee, sweet-oil, condiments and spices, vegetables, tomatoes, onions, potatoes, chillis, tea-leaves and tea-dust, sugar, milk and a number of other articles. The extent of consumption of these articles increases with the growth in the size of establishment and the volume of business. The smallest type of a rural hotel in the district is said to consume accessories worth a thousand rupees or so per annum, whilst the expenditure of a big establishment on the same item for a similar period can be said to come up to as many as 25 to 30 times as much.

Tools and Equipment.

As observed earlier, two or three benches constitute the furniture of a tea-shop in rural areas and chairs and tables in urban areas. In some shops, well established in business, decorating mirrors are hung on the walls and a radio-set is installed near the counter. But in most cases, the furniture used is of a very simple type and lacks proper maintenance. Utensils and other equipment too are hardly enough to meet the demand. In small shops, utensils of german silver or aluminium are in common use. The amount locked up in tools and equipment varies from a few hundred rupees in small hotels to often more than five thousand rupees in big shops.

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Capital.

The investment in tea-shops is usually of two types: (a) Fixed and (b) working. Fixed investment is made for buying tools and other equipment. In the latter case, it is for buying accessories and for meeting expenditure of a recurring nature with the exception of wages. The amount locked up as fixed capital depends on the size of the shops and the quality as well as quantity of the equipment. Small ones possess equipment just necessary for keeping them going, and hence their fixed investment is limited. The statistics about the investment in a few establishments are as under:—

Fixed and working capital of Hotels and Restaurants.

No. of the Units Surveyed	Size of the Units	Capital Structure	
		Fixed (in Rs.)	Working (in Rs.)
6	Big..	29,700	13,947
20	Medium	15,250	11,444
1	Small	300	375

One or sometimes two cooks are employed in such establishments. The other employees are attendants or waiters to serve customers. Some boys are also employed to clean tables, wash utensils, crockery, floors, etc. The number of employees in each category varies with the size of the establishment. The cook's job is skilled and he is paid more. On an average a cook in a medium-sized hotel in an urban area gets about Rs. 50 per month. Other workers get about Rs. 15 to Rs. 20. Besides the emoluments, the workers are given snacks and tea twice a day. The employees in such establishments live a very hard life. There is no guarantee of a continuous employment. They have perforce to remain busy from morning till late at night. But the return that they get for their labour is very poor.

Turnover.

The turnover of such establishments depends on many factors like locality, the type of clientele, their eating habits, etc. A hotel situated near a bazar at a business centre or near a cinema house or any office can afford to serve various types of dishes, because it finds sufficient demand for them. But in case of establishments situated in a small village or by the roadside, the conditions are not so encouraging. Secondly, in urban areas it has been observed that many persons take their food in restaurants only. This gives assured demand to some of them. The turnover also depends upon the managements' capacity to attract more and better clientele.

Income and Expenditure.

The income of these shops is in proportion to their turnover. Thus at the time of festivals or local fairs, business becomes brisk, but during the rainy season, it turns dull and yields insufficient returns. The net income of a small hotel ranges

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from Rs. 50 to about Rs. 100 while that of a big establishment varies from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,500 per month. Generally, the margin of profit works out to about 35 to 40 per cent according to the season.

Accessories, wages and rent constitute the important items of expenditure. Of these, accessories alone account for half the expenditure. The establishment charges are very high in urban areas as compared to those in the rural ones because most of them are housed in rented premises. Wages are comparatively high. Some amount has also to be spent on making the establishment more attractive. The occupation in the district is not a hereditary one. It gradually developed during the last thirty years or so, and spread throughout the district. Almost all the restaurants are owned by the individual managers and it was their principal occupation. There is still a wide scope for improvement in regard to investment, services, labour condition, etc. Indebtedness was very rarely found. In prominent cities like Amravati, Badnera, etc., and in big towns like Morshi, Warud, Achalpur, etc., the restaurant owners have their associations.

MANUFACTURE OF AERATED WATER.

These establishments are mainly located in Amravati, Badnera and Achalpur. A sample survey of two such establishments was conducted and the observations are given below.

Of the two, one establishment was of medium size and the other was of a larger size. The equipment generally required by these establishments consists of soda-fountains, soda-bottles, glasses, soda-making machines, gas-cylinders, ice-boxes, etc, while the raw materials are milk, sugar, salt, ice, saw dust, colours, essences and preservatives. Except essences and preservatives which are usually purchased from Bombay, all other raw materials are locally purchased. In 1962, the medium-sized shop had equipment worth Rs. 4,000 and the big shop had equipment valued at Rs. 40,000. The initial investment in the medium-sized establishment was Rs. 12,000 while that in the larger sized one it was Rs. 80,000. The working capital required for purchasing raw materials, making payments to the salaried staff, rent, electricity charges, water-rates, renewal licence fee, etc., in case of the medium-sized establishment and big establishment varied from Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 11,249 respectively.

The owner of the medium-sized shop had three employees and they were paid Rs 200 per month as their wages, while the owner of the big establishment had 24 employees throughout the year. When the business was brisk their number increased up to 55. They were paid Rs. 4,583 per month as wages.

The business for these concerns is brisk from February to June. The products consist of aerated waters and drinks of various kinds such as soda, orange, ice-cream, lassi, raspberry, pineapple, lemonade, etc. The charges for the products vary from 10 paise to 50 paise depending upon the variety of drinks. The drinks are sold to hotels, restaurants more or less on a wholesale basis

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LAUNDRIES.

and to the customers visiting the shops. The net earnings of the establishments varied from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 2,351 per month.

The occupation is typically urban in character. Though nowadays the ruralites sometimes clad themselves in white and well-creased dress, it is but a transcultural trait as a result of contact with the urbanites. Only in cities, big towns and at taluka headquarters laundries are found. In rural areas where such establishments are absent, these services are rendered by *dhobis*, most of whom belong to the Hindu Parit Community. The *dhobis* or Parits used to serve the village people throughout the year. The system is now disappearing and even in a remote village the presence of a *dhobi* is felt. Generally in villages, *dhobis* collect clothes from house to house, wash them and deliver them to the customers. The occupation is hereditary. The *dhobis* as a class are poor, honest and painstaking. The return that they get at the time of the annual agricultural operations from the villagers is usually on a contract basis and consists of food-grains.

In cities and towns like Amravati, Achalpur, Morshi, etc., the laundry business has become a principal occupation of many. The equipment of a laundry consists of a standing or hanging cupboard to keep ironed clothes, one or two big tables with irons, a few small pots, big tubs and *kadhai* (iron pan) and a dry-cleaning machine if it provides dry-cleaning services. The equipment of a fairly big laundry costs Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 2,000 excluding the expenditure on the dry-cleaning machine amounting to Rs. 3,000. The equipment of a medium-sized laundry consists of a table, a cupboard, an iron and big utensils requiring an investment of about Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 while the small laundries are run with a capital of Rs. 300 to Rs. 400. The owners usually raise their capital for the business from their own resources or from relatives or friends.

Accessories.

The accessories used in this occupation include washing-soda, soap, bleaching-powder, starch, indigo and tinopal for the washing purposes, and charcoal and firewood as fuel. All these are locally available. The consumption of raw materials depends on the volume of turnover of the establishment. In a small-sized establishment it is Rs. 40 to Rs. 60 per month and in a big establishment it is worth Rs. 300 to Rs. 400.

Laundry services comprise washing and ironing of cotton garments and dry-cleaning of woollen clothes. The charges depend on the type of service required. For urgent washing and ironing of clothes, special and starched washing, and dry-cleaning the charges are higher. Throughout the year the business is fairly brisk.

In addition to the expenditure on equipment, accessories, rent, lighting charges, etc., the establishments spend on wages of the employees, if any, and *dhobis* to whom usually clothes are given for washing on piece basis. Most of the establishments are

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managed by the owners and their family members. Very few establishments have employees either on daily wages or monthly payment as when outsiders are employed, they are paid a daily wage of Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2.00. The *dhobis* are paid between Rs. 6 and Rs. 10 for washing a hundred clothes. While the income of a big laundry in Amravati ranged from Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 per month in 1962, at tahsil headquarters it ranged from Rs. 150 to Rs. 200. The income of a small-sized laundry on the other hand varied between Rs. 100 and Rs. 125 per month.

MATTRESS AND PILLOW-MAKING.

Mattress and pillow-making shops are generally found in big towns. Though cotton is the important commercial crop in the district, the agriculturists in the rural parts of the district do not generally use mattresses and pillows. The use of the latter is confined to a few landlords and some well-to-do people. They are purchased either in big towns or got prepared from the *ferivalas*. In towns it is the principal means of livelihood of many persons, especially those belonging to the Muslim community.

Most of the establishments in this category are of medium size. A well-established shop has a spinning machine, a big weighing machine *'Taraju'*, weights and big needles as its equipment. The raw material consists of cotton cloth, etc., of different varieties. The *ferivalas* who move from house to house possess only the carding bow. The cost of the equipment of a medium-sized establishment varies from Rs. 700 to Rs. 1,200. The initial investment required for purchasing machine, weights, *taraju*, etc., amounts to Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,500. Most of the establishments are managed by the owners and their family members. The major items of expenditure are rent and electricity charges wherever power machines are used. The amount spent on these items varies from Rs. 20 to Rs. 60 per month.

The products consist of mattresses, pillows, *razais*, etc. The labour charges are on piece basis and depend upon the size of the mattress. The occupation provides business throughout the year.

LODGING AND BOARDING.

The expansion of lodging and boarding business in recent times has been mainly due to migration of people, on account of transfers in services, business transactions, people's habit to change their residence for some period and sales representatives, stray visitors and propagators moving from place to place. At the educational centres and at the district place, the occupation of providing lodging and boarding is lucrative and hence popular. However as compared to restaurants, boarding houses are few in number and lodging and boarding houses are still fewer. The occupation has gradually developed only during the last forty years. It is not hereditary in character. Almost all the lodging and boarding houses are run on ownership basis. They generally occupy rented premises. Most of the boarding houses are of medium size. The boarding houses are generally found at every taluka headquarters and at the district place but

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the same is not true about the lodging houses. The boarding houses are found almost in all parts of a town, but the lodging and boarding houses are situated nearabout the prominent places such as bus-stands, railway stations, etc. The quality of the food served by these boarding houses depends on the number of customers visiting the establishments, the rates charged by them, the management and the availability of accessories.

Accessories.

Accessories consist of foodgrains, condiments and spices, groundnut oil, vegetable ghee and vegetables in a vegetarian boarding house. The requirements of a non-vegetarian establishment, in addition to the above, include fish, mutton (specially of he-goats) and eggs. The amount of raw materials consumed depends upon the turnover of the establishment. A big establishment spends from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,500 every month on raw materials; while in case of medium-sized establishments the expenditure on the same item varies from about Rs. 300 to Rs. 700. The small boarding houses need Rs. 150 to Rs. 300 for purchasing the accessories for the same period.

Tools and Equipment.

Except very few lodging and boarding houses which are well equipped, tools and equipment of most of the establishments are neither adequate nor decent. Some chairs or benches, small dining tables or even *pats* (low stools) are used for dining purpose. A few benches are also kept in the waiting room or drawing room, if any. Dishes, bowls and pots of different sizes constitute the common utensils required for cooking, serving meals and storage. The stock of the utensils depends on the size of the establishment. The equipment of lodging houses in the district comprises few cots—iron or wooden—, few mattresses, pillows and bed-sheets. The amount spent on tools and equipment varies with the size of the establishment. It is Rs. 1,200 to Rs. 1,300 in big lodging and boarding houses. The investment of the medium-sized boarding houses in the same item varies from Rs. 800 to Rs. 1,000, while the small boarding houses require Rs. 400 to Rs. 500 for purchasing tools and equipment. The other amenities such as radio sets, etc., are very rarely found in the lodging and boarding houses.

Capital.

The capital invested in the business of providing lodging and boarding is fixed capital and working capital. The fixed capital is on items such as cooking utensils, pots required for serving meals, furniture, etc., while the working capital represents purchase of raw-materials. Some amount is also required periodically for replacing cooking utensils, dishes, bowls, etc., when they become worn out. The capital is often secured by way of cash advances from customers on monthly basis. or from relatives or friends. Sometimes the owners raise their own capital. In the case of lodging houses, after initial investment by way of fixed capital for equipping the tenements, working capital plays a very insignificant part. A big lodging and boarding house in Amravati was found to have fixed capital of Rs. 3,000 and

working capital of Rs. 1,800. The average fixed and working capital invested in a medium-sized boarding house is Rs. 538 and Rs. 364, respectively, whereas it is Rs. 325 and Rs. 215, respectively, in a small-sized boarding house.

Labour.

The total number of employees in all the nine establishments that were surveyed was 27, out of whom 15 were paid employees and 12 were owners and their family members. The monthly wages paid to the servants varied according to the nature of the work and ranged between Rs. 15 and Rs. 70. The skilled workers like cooks. etc., were paid more. A cook was paid between Rs. 40 and Rs. 60 and other workers between Rs. 15 and Rs. 30 per month and in addition were served with tea and two meals a day. Due to not very satisfactory working conditions, this type of labour was of a floating nature.

Turnover.

The turnover of the boarding house depends on the number of its permanent members and the casual customers who visit it The management of the establishment, the quality of food that the establishment serves and its location also affect the turnover of an establishment. Meals are prepared and served twice a day. They are served either on "rice-plate system" or on full-meal basis, to permanent members or to casual customers. In a lodging house, a lodger is provided with a cot, mattress, a pillow and a bed-sheet. Arrangements for bath and washing of clothes are also made. The daily turnover of a big establishment varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 while that of a medium-sized establishment varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 70.

Income and Expenditure.

The items of the expenditure are rent, electricity, municipal taxes, wages to the labourers, raw materials and utensils required for cooking. The expenditure on these items varies according to the size of the establishment. The monthly expenditure of a big establishment in the district varies from Rs. 1.000 to Rs. 1,500 and that of a medium-sized establishment from about Rs. 400 to Rs. 600. As regards the net earnings of these establishments, the large-sized and medium-sized lodging and boarding houses earn Rs. 500 and Rs. 700 per month, respectively, while the boarding houses earn between Rs. 200 and Rs. 300, per month.

HAIR-CUTTING SALOONS.

The services of barbers like those of tailors are indispensable. Barbers as well as the tailors make the persons smart in appearance. Yet, for all this the barber gets his seat just on the lower rung of the social ladder. In a small village the barber is a *balutedar* and serves the villagers for which he gets food-grains at the time of the annual harvest. Usually in the morning he sits in the veranda or under a simple shade nearabout his residence or sometimes under a tree at the centre of a village. The village barber has a bag known as *dhopti* which is a miniature mobile saloon and contains a pair of scissors, one or two razors, a pair of cropping machines which is always out of order, a broken comb, a fading out mirror, a small piece of simple soap, a brush and a small aluminium pot (*wati*). His other duties consist of calling persons from the village to attend a marriage ceremony, for taking meals, etc.

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In towns or cities the barber sets up permanent shops or hair-cutting saloons. Besides, some barbers with their bags move from door to door. Most of the hair-cutting saloons are situated in rented premises. They are arranged aesthetically and equipped with a sufficient number of tools, mirrored walls, chairs either wooden or revolving, dressing tables, lights, fans and radio-sets in a few cases. Very few establishments provide amenities such as cushioned chairs, better toilet-service, etc., and also cater to the needs of their modern customers who wish to have different hair styles. Naturally, amongst other factors this has enhanced the cost of equipment and in general, the expenditure on establishment with the changes in the pattern, employment, equipment, income, etc., of this occupation. The following table shows the number of persons engaged in this occupation during the last fifty years:—

Year		Number of persons engaged in the occupation
1911	..	2,928
1921	..	2,343
1931	..	3,171
1941	..	N.A.
1951	..	1,963
1961	..	1,939

Accessories.

The village barber needs no cosmetics. What he requires is nothing but an ordinary cake of soap and cold water. The itinerant barbers who are found in the towns and cities have their bags well equipped with better tools and a few cosmetics such as snow, superior soap, face powder and hair oil. These itinerant barbers spend not more than Rs. 10 per month. The expenditure on the same items in an establishment in a big town varies between Rs. 30 and Rs. 75 per month depending upon the turnover and size of the establishment. Accessories required by a well-equipped hair-cutting saloon in a city constitute cosmetics such as pomade, snow, face-powder, scented oil and soaps, etc., which are locally available.

Tools and Equipment.

The occupation can be started with a minimum of tools and equipment such as a pair of scissors, one or two razors and a pair of cropping machines. The tools and equipment of an itinerant barber cost between Rs. 100 and Rs. 150. The establishment could be categorised in three types, *viz.*, establishments having one or two chairs, a dressing table, big mirrors, and other tools; secondly those having three or four chairs and all other tools and equipment required to carry on hair-cutting operations at three or four chairs at a time and thirdly big establishments, having more than four chairs, dressing-tables, big mirrors fixed on the tables, a simple or well-carved long bench for the customers to relax upon, fans and a radio-set in a few shops and the required tools such as scissors, razors, cropping machines, etc. The cost of tools and equipment in a small shop

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Tools and Equipment.

is estimated at about Rs. 300. In a medium shop it amounts to about Rs. 500, but in a big shop it exceeds a thousand rupees. In towns the owners are inclined to invest more in tools and equipment with a view to giving a good appearance to the shop. Probably this tendency can be traced to the craving for decency, insisted upon by the customers. Thus the occupation does not require large capital investment at its initial stage. The working capital consists of the amount required for the maintenance of tools and equipment, for buying accessories and for paying the wages to the employees, if any. The capital is often raised from their own resources or from their friends or relatives.

A hair-dressing saloon has fixed hours of work spread partly in the morning and partly in the evening and usually observes the time schedule rigidly. The itinerant barber starts very early in the morning and works till mid-day depending upon the response to his work and earns an income varying between Rs. 30 and Rs. 70 per month. In the big establishments, artisans are paid wages either on a fixed or on piece-meal basis but in either case they earn an income varying between Rs. 40 and Rs. 100 a month. In big towns the charges of various hair-cutting services are more or less fixed.

Some barbers were found to possess small agricultural holdings cultivated either by their family members or leased to other cultivators. This provided the family with supplementary income. In some cases members of their families were found to be working on daily wages on the farms of other cultivators. It was also observed that though the occupation in many cases was of a hereditary nature, some of their members who were better educated did not undertake the occupation.

BAKERIES.

The origin of the occupation can be traced as early as the advent of the ex-British regime in the country. The bakeries were then started to cater to the needs of the European officials. However, they expanded with the passage of time and with the change in food habits of the people. Now the consumption of processed food stuffs, particularly the bread, is so large that it is available even in remote villages. However, these food items have not been able to replace the main constituents of food, *viz. chapati* or *bhakari* and they are still used as side or luxury dishes in urban areas.

Generally, bakeries are found in Amravati and in other towns like Badnera, Achalpur, Dhamangaon, Morshi, Warud, etc. In the other parts of the district, some businessmen either bring bread, biscuits, etc., from a big bakery or prepare them themselves on a small scale.

Raw Materials.

Raw materials required by a bakery consist of *maida* (wheat-flour), sugar, soda, hydrogenated oils, ghee, etc. All these items are purchased from the local markets. An average unit found in the district uses about 8—10 maunds of *maida*, about a maund of sugar and the necessary quantity of hydrogenated oil and ghee in a month. A large-sized bakery requires nearly

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BAKERIES.

double this quantity. The cost of raw materials in the case of a big bakery varies from Rs. 800 to Rs. 1,000 per month. The small-sized establishment on the other hand requires raw materials worth Rs. 200 to Rs. 500.

Raw Materials.

The equipment of an average bakery consists of a large wooden table to prepare dough, a *bhatti* or oven, tin trays, small iron-sheet boxes to bake bread, long iron rods, vessels, moulds, cupboards, baskets, etc. The cost of a bhatti varies from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,500. The cost of other equipment of a small unit varies from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000; while a big unit has equipment worth Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 3,000. Thus the fixed capital is required generally to construct a *bhatti* and buy the necessary equipment, while the working capital is required to purchase raw materials and to pay the wages.

Employment.

Only large-sized establishments in Amravati and in towns like Achalpur, Badnera, Dhamangaon, Morshi, etc., have paid employees. However, quite a large number of bakeries are, run as one-man units, occasionally with the assistance of family-members by their proprietors. Wages paid to hired labour depend on the nature of the job, skilled or unskilled. An unskilled labourer gets about a rupee and a half while a baker is paid, sometimes more than two rupees per day. Skilled labourers sometimes get monthly payments varying between Rs. 60 and Rs. 90.

Bread, butter, cakes, biscuits and buns are the chief products of these bakeries. However, bread alone accounts for a significant part of the total production. These products are sold either on wholesale or retail basis. Although the turnover of a bakery depends upon its size, in the case of a big unit it varies between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 1,500 per month. The volume of turnover of a small-sized unit varies from Rs. 400 to Rs. 700. The bulk of the transaction in these units takes place on a cash basis and as such the amount locked up as working capital is negligible. An average bakery earns a net income varying between Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 3,000 per annum. The bakeries have almost continuous business throughout the year.

TAILORING.

Tailoring shops either small or big are found in all parts of the district. The tailor has been an indispensable component of the society since long. Independent tailoring shops may not be found in all the villages of the district, yet all the same, a group of two or three small villages do have a tailor. Particularly in rural areas the profession is characterised by its traditional nature. A few tailors add to their monthly income by selling readymade clothes kept in a small depot attached to their shops. A few of them also have agriculture as either a subsidiary or main occupation looked after by their family members. However, a majority of them have nothing else to supplement their earnings and have exclusively to depend on their income from the profession. Most of the tailors in small villages are unskilled and only stitch waist-coats, bodices, *payjamas* and make a precarious living while the tailors found in bigger

TAILORING.

villages undertake stitching of shirts, pants, among other things. The skilled tailors found only in big towns seem to be adept in the art of tailoring and specialise in stitching clothes of men, women and children.

Employment.

The occupation employs a good number of persons. With an increase in money incomes of the people and their adaptability to the ever-changing fashions, the demand for skilled tailoring services has gone up and this ensures a prosperous future to this profession. However, tailors have to cater to the new requirements which change from day to day and learn to adopt new fashions. The following figures give the number of persons engaged in the occupation during the last 50 years:—

Year	Number of persons engaged in the occupation.
1911	2,586
1921	1,748
1931	2,623
1941	N.A.
1951	2,080
1961	4,476

Accessories.

Accessories available locally, consist of thread, buttons, canvas-cloth, needles, oil, etc. The amount spent on accessories varies from Rs. 5 to more than Rs. 50 per month, depending on the turnover of the shop.

A sewing machine, a pair of scissors, a stool or a chair, low stool (big *pat*) and a tape are the important items of the equipment of a tailoring shop. A medium-sized tailoring shop has two to three sewing machines, some chairs or benches, a low stool, *pat* or table, a cupboard, whereas in a big shop more than two machines are kept and tailors are employed either on daily or monthly wages. Besides, big shops have other equipment such as a large table for cutting cloth, one or two cupboards for keeping clothes, stitched or otherwise, and a few chairs or benches for customers to sit upon. Of the tools and equipment, a sewing machine costs from Rs. 400 to Rs. 700, and a pair of scissors from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20.

In a village, the tailor collects orders from house to house, takes measures, receives cloth and finally delivers stitched articles. But in towns and cities customers visit the shops. The skill of a tailor consists in the way he cuts the cloth, as per the required measurement and design. This work in big shops is usually done either by the owners of the shops or by a specially employed tailor and stitching is given to other employees. The employed tailors are generally paid on a piece-rate basis In some cases, they are paid salaries. Monthly wages per labourer are from Rs. 60 to Rs. 90 in towns and from Rs. 30 to Rs. 45 in big villages.

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Shirts, pants, trousers, coats, waist-coats, blouses and bodices make the usual items of stitching. The stitching charges differ according to the quality as well as the type of the work and the demand for tailoring services.

TAILORING. Accessories.

The tailor's output of work depends upon the situation of the shop, whether in a village or in a town, whether in a central place or otherwise or on the work that may be available at the place as also on his capacity to deliver the goods to the satisfaction of the customers. In a village the daily output of work is worth a rupee or two. At the time of some festivals such as annual fairs, *Gudhipadava, Dipavali, Nagpanchami,* etc., and marriages, the business is brisk and a tailor earns between Rs. 4 and Rs. 6 per day. In a city or big town it ranges from Rs. 10 to Rs. 25 per day. The picture of a decent, well-equipped tailoring shop managed by expert tailors by applying the fundamental principles of modern business is rather an uncommon scene in the district except the Amravati city.

CYCLE-REPAIRING.

Bicycle, today, has become the vehicle of the common man. It is found in the cities and also in the remote villages. It provides a ready and cheap means of transport and does not require much capital or broad roads.

The cycles and cycle-rickshaws which provide cheap means of conveyance in big towns like Amravati, Achalpur, Morshi, etc., and also in rural areas necessitate the establishment of cycle-repairing shops. The majority of the cycle-repairing shops are of medium size. Big shops are found only in a big town like Amravati. These shops provide employment to a good number of persons. These shops, besides cycle-repairing, sell cycle spare parts and take to such other allied occupations as hiring the bicycles, etc. Generally, these shops maintain about four to five cycles for hiring them out to customers on rates fixed per hour or per day.

The survey of these establishments conducted in Amravati district reveals the following facts about their capital investment, income and expenditure. The establishments were either big, medium or small. Their capital structure as revealed by the survey was as under:—

Size	No. of Shops surveyed	Capital investment in rupees (average per unit)	
		Fixed	*Working* (only for repairing)
Big	4	2,140	62 per month.
Medium	12	1,025	49 per month.
Small	20	624	32 per month.

CYCLE-REPAIRING.

The main items of capital investment are the purchase of bicycles and their spare parts and other equipment. In an average unit, about four bicycles are kept for hiring out to customers. The equipment of such shops comprises one or two benches, a table, a petromax, if electricity is not available, spanners of various sizes, nuts, screws, cycle-pump and articles required to remove puncture, etc. Working capital is used for paying rent and wages, if any, and purchase of accessories required for running the shop.

Most of the establishments are managed by the owners with the help of their family members. They were usually situated in rented premises, the rent of which varies between Rs. 8 and Rs. 20 per month.

These establishments receive income from charges made for bicycle-repairing and for hiring out bicycles. Some shops also do the work of repairing stoves, petromaxes, etc. The net monthly income of small establishments was estimated to be about Rs. 104, of medium establishments about Rs. 131 and of big establishments about Rs. 228 per month.

Among the employees, teen-aged youngsters are found in larger numbers. They are paid between Rs. 15 and Rs. 25 in small towns and between Rs. 25 to Rs. 40 in big towns. Adults are paid between Rs. 45 and Rs. 60 per month.

The business of these shops remains brisk during summer and winter, particularly during harvest period and slack during monsoon.

CAP-MAKING.

The other minor occupations in the towns include cap-making, basket-making, picture-framing, etc. Of these the occupation of cap-making is found in big towns. The equipment of these establishments consists of a sewing machine, scissors, needles, thread, straw-board, canvas, cloth, etc. The medium-sized and big establishments are managed by the owners' family members as well as by the salaried staff. The wages of the employees vary from Rs. 50 to Rs. 120 per month. The other items of expenditure include rent, raw materials, electricity charges, etc., and the amount spent on these items per month is from Rs. 150 to Rs. 250. The cost of the sewing machine is from Rs. 350 to Rs. 600.

These shops make various types of woollen, jari, *Gandhi* and folding caps. They are sold to wholesale and retail dealers or directly to the customers at retail rates in the local market The monthly income of small shops ranges from Rs. 130 to Rs. 200 and that of medium-sized shops from Rs. 200 to Rs. 325

PHOTO-FRAME MAKING.

Very few shops of photo-frame making are found in big towns. The equipment required for this occupation consists of a small hammer, nails, scissors, etc., while raw materials include ply-wood, sheet glasses, pictures, cardboard, etc. All these articles are purchased from the local market. Most of the establishments are managed by the owners themselves but in a few cases with the help of their assistants.

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PHOTO-FRAME MAKING.

The initial investment of these shops varies from Rs. 200 to Rs. 250. The earnings of the medium-sized shops varies from Rs. 100 to Rs. 160, while that of small shops ranges from Rs. 50 to Rs. 70 per month. The business is more or less steady throughout the year.

GOLDSMITHS.

Goldsmiths are found in large numbers in towns as well as villages. They make gold as well as silver ornaments. In a village a goldsmith serves the society as a *balutedar* and is known as *sonar*. The tools generally required by the goldsmiths, are anvil, bellows, hammers, pincers, pots, crucibles, moulds and nails for ornamental work, *tika, autti, saj autti*, drilling machine, cupboards, etc., the cost of which varies between Rs. 400 and Rs. 1,000.

In rural areas except marriage celebrations, festivals and local fairs, the business is more or less steady throughout the year. The earnings of goldsmiths in rural areas vary from Rs. 25 to Rs. 50 per month depending upon the orders received from the customers. Most of the *sonars* in villages are labourers.

In big towns goldsmiths get work from the *Sarafs*. They are employed either on daily wages or on piece-meal basis. The earnings of the goldsmiths in towns as compared with their counterparts in the rural areas of the district are somewhat more and vary between Rs. 140 and Rs. 200 per month. Generally, metals like gold and silver are supplied by the customers themselves. The goldsmiths carrying business on a small scale could not afford to keep a stock of these precious metals. With the recently issued Gold Control Order by the Government of India, the goldsmiths have lost all business in gold and many of them have gone out of employment. To help them out of their difficulties, the Government have extended to them many service facilities.

PAN-BIDI SHOPS.

Pan-bidi shops have become a common sight even in remote parts of the district. Wherever possible, pan-bidi sellers set up permanent shops generally by the side of the hotels, cinema houses, if any, railway and bus stations, bazar and at all important corners of streets. Sometimes they move in the streets, particularly on bazar day with a tray which is a miniature mobile shop containing the necessary items of *pan-patti* and bundles of bidis. They also sell cigarettes and match-boxes.

There are two types of *pan-bidi* shops: shops in the first category, sell only prepared *pan-pattis*, bidis, cigarettes, match-boxes, some other goods of daily use like soap, *agarbatti*, tooth-paste, powder and few patent medicines like Aspro, Anacin, etc. The other type of shops sell loose betel-leaves, betel nuts, tobacco and other things of daily use as aforesaid.

The habit of chewing *pan-patti* is more or less the same in this district as in other parts of Maharashtra. Very often the guests are entertained by offering *pan*. Usually people chew *pan* after taking meals or drinks like tea, coffee, etc. Besides, the

PAN-BIDI SHOPS.

betel-leaves and areca-nuts have auspicious value and are used at the time of marriages and other religious functions. Numerous articles are mixed together while preparing a *pan-patti* such as *pan* (betel-leave), pieces of areca-nut, lime, tobacco-leaf or powder, catechu, clove and cardamom. These *pan-pattis* taste astringent and not sweet. The *pan-pattis* have received such name as the Calcutta mitha, Poona masala, Banarasi mitha, Mohva, indicating the tastes of the people according to the respective areas.

Accessories.

Accessories consist of betel-leaves, tobacco-leaves and powder, betel-nuts, lime, catechu, cloves, cardamom, copra, hariyali and other items of 'spices' (*masala*). The extent of consumption of these articles increases naturally with the growth in the size of an establishment which depends on the turnover. Generally all these shops are run on the small-scale and are managed by the owners themselves. Extra labour is very rarely employed. Sometimes hotel owners keep such shops in the extension of their premises and run them through their relatives. Such shops stand better in competition as their establishment charges are practically negligible.

The equipment of these shops consists of a small shelf to keep different items, a few pots to keep catechu, chuna (lime), etc., a big plate to keep betel-leaves and a bucketful of water for sprinkling it on betel-leaves to keep them fresh, a scissors and a nut-cracker. All these items cost about a hundred rupees. A few shops have radio sets.

These shops generally sell two types of *pan-pattis*: (1) ordinary (*sadha*) with or without tobacco, and (2) special with or without tobacco. The daily turnover of an average bidi-shop depends on such factors as the situation of the shop, the quality of the preparation (*pan-patti*), etc. But generally it ranges from Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 per day. The monthly net earnings of these shops vary between Rs. 150 and Rs. 225 The business is brisk at the time of festivals, local fairs, marriages and on bazar days. The *pan-patti* shops offer prospects of a good employment. They require small initial capital investment, small space and a few tools and equipment to start with.

LAW

The census heading of liberal arts and professions includes among other lawyers, barristers, teachers, and doctors. An increase in the number of persons belonging to these professions is a definite indication of the educational achievement of the society. During the last fifty years the number of earners in this category has considerably gone up.

The total number of lawyers residing and practising in Amravati district is 240. There is only one barrister residing and practising in the district. No women lawyers are practising in the district.

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LAW.

In 1963, the total number of lawyers residing and practising at the district headquarters and tahsil headquarters, where the courts are located, is given below:—

Amravati	146
Achalpur	41
Daryapur	26
Chandur	10
Morshi	17

Due to the various enactments relating to land, the earnings of lawyers specialising on the civil side have considerably reduced. Some lawyers, therefore, have taken to specialisation on the criminal side. There is an increase in the number of law graduates but many of them accept other vocations.

In the district there are two registered associations of lawyers. The Amravati Bar Association was registered in the year 1937 and its total membership at present is 146. The Bar Association at Achalpur was registered in 1939 and its total membership at present is 41.

EDUCATION.

Persons in educational professions can be divided into four categories: (1) those engaged in primary schools, (2) those engaged in secondary schools, (3) those engaged in institutions and partly, (4) those engaged in colleges. The total number of primary teachers in the district is 4,521 which includes 461 women teachers. In the secondary schools, there are 1,501 men and 263 women teachers. The total number of teachers of various grades such as instructors, assistant teachers, supervisors, principals, etc., engaged in the institutions like Industrial Institute, Kalaniketan, Vocational High School, Government Diploma Training Institutes, one for men and the other for women is 112. In the last category, *viz.*, colleges which include arts, science, commerce and government basic training colleges, the total number of teachers of various grades comes to 308.

The income of a secondary school teacher on an average is found to be between Rs. 150 and Rs. 250 and that of a teacher in technical institutions and colleges varied between Rs. 250 to Rs. 500. In respect of educational qualifications as well as earnings, the class of teachers shows a definite improvement. There is also a variety in training secured by the teachers due to the fact that physical education, technical education, etc., have been introduced as compulsory subjects in many educational institutions.

In the district, there are in all 10 registered associations of primary and secondary school teachers. Their membership at present is 7,378.

RELIGIOUS PROFESSION.

Due to the advancement of science and the stress on the materialistic attitude of the people and to some extent the vulnerability of persons belonging to the priestly professions, religion, which once upon a time ruled over the mankind, is

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RELIGIOUS PROFESSION.

fast losing its importance. The number of persons belonging to the priestly professions is considerably reduced. So also the number of new entrants in the profession is insignificant as it does not provide a reasonable means of livelihood. Gone are the days when the priests played a consolidated role of a friend, a philosopher and a guide. The earnings of this class and their general standards have been adversely affected. In rural areas at the time of marriage ceremonies and other festivals, the earnings of the priest hardly amount to between Rs. 25 and Rs. 35. In urban areas they are slightly higher ranging between Rs. 35 and Rs. 60 per month. The younger generation far from being attracted towards the ancestral profession is taking to other suitable vocations.

MEDICAL PROFESSION.

The medical profession has gained much during the last fifty years. People in rural as well as in urban areas have become more conscious of diseases with the result that the earnings of medical practitioners have gone up. A number of primary health centres, its sub-centres, maternity and child health centres, subsidised medical practitioner's centres have been established under the rural health and sanitation programme. However, the proportion of doctors to the entire population of the district is very low especially in rural areas.

DOMESTIC SERVANTS.

Generally, only those families having good incomes and those having an agricultural bias employ domestic servants. However, the rural domestic servants and their urban counterparts differ in their nature and conditions of service. The rural domestic servants are usually employed during the sowing and harvesting period. They are paid in cash and kind according to the work performed. Servants who are employed for a year or more than a year, are technically known as attached labour. They are also paid in cash and kind. The extent of this type of labour is significant in Vidarbha and Marathawada regions. Attached labour is employed particularly to look after the cattle, to protect crops, and also for fencing, weeding, watering the crop, etc. A sub-category of rural servants, now fast disappearing, is the one where a worker is employed in the family of a Jagirdar, or Inamdar or a landlord in return for the monetary help received by him from the household, the period of service extending from about two years to five, depending upon the amount of loan taken.

In urban areas, two distinct classes of domestic servants can be found. The one employed as a full-time servant to do every possible kind of family service and the other employed partly for certain specific jobs, such as washing of clothes and utensils.

The majority of the servants are employed on part-time basis. Their monthly earnings vary between Rs. 25 and Rs. 45, depending upon the number of families they serve. The earnings of full-time servants vary between Rs. 30 and Rs. 50. In addition to this, they are also provided with meals, clothing, etc. The servants of the second category are mostly women, the monthly earnings of whom vary between Rs. 3 and Rs. 10.

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DOMESTIC SERVANTS.

During the last few years, the earnings of the domestic servants as a class have increased. Consequently, there is some awakening visible in this class. They are either trying to form an union of their own or becoming members of other workers' unions.

FLOUR-MILLING

In some villages of Maharashtra still the day dawns with the ringing of bells in the temples, lowing of cows and calves, and women singing *ovyas* while grinding grains with grinding wheels in their own houses. But gradually the scene is being transformed with the introduction of modern machines. Only in big villages, towns and cities, flour-mills are found in substantial numbers: while in rural areas two or three villages have a flour-mill in common. In villages the establishments work on oil-engines and in towns and cities flour-mills work on power. Grinding grains and chillis are the main occupations which provide employment throughout the year.

Electric motors, oil-engines, grinders, balances and other minor tools constitute the main equipment. The cost of equipment in these establishments varies from Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 3,500. The amount of money spent on the repairs of equipment varies from Rs. 200 to Rs. 450 or more per year. The capital required for initial investment in many cases was raised by the proprietors from their own resources.

Most of the establishments are housed in rented premises, the rent of which varies from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30 per month. The other items on which expenditure is incurred are electric energy, diesel oil, etc. It varies from about Rs. 30 to Rs. 80 depending upon the size and the turnover of the establishment. Many of these establishments are managed by the proprietors with the help of assistants. The employees, if any, are paid monthly wages varying between Rs. 40 and Rs. 60.

The establishments have a continuous business throughout the year. It is usually brisk during festivals like *Divali*, *Holi*, etc., and also at the time of marriage celebrations. The owner of the establishment having one *Chakki* earns about Rs. 150 to Rs. 300 per month.

OTHER MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

The occupations described above, however, do not cover the entire field. There are still other occupations which provide employment to a considerable number of persons but are too small to deal with separately. Fruit-vendors, sellers of vegetables, flowers, milk and meat, sweetmeat makers, astrologers, newspaper sellers, blacksmiths, carpenters, shoe-makers, grain parchers, etc., are some of them. A few observations about some of them are given below.

Fruit and Vegetable Vendors.

Most of the vendors do their business in the market place locally known as *mandai* where they have their own *galas*. They bring fresh fruits and vegetables from the villages in the vicinity and sell them in the market. They make their

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OTHER MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Fruit and Vegetable Vendors.

purchases on contract basis from fruit and vegetable growers and sell them on retail basis. In Amravati and in a few big towns separate fruit-shops are found and at other places they are either sold by vegetable sellers or *ferivalas*. A few fruit and vegetable vendors move from house to house in the morning. The earnings of these persons vary from Rs. 30 to Rs. 75 per month. They depend mostly on the total turnover and variety of the vegetables sold. Some persons engaged in this occupation also do some other work either on farm or in the household to supplement their earnings.

Flower-sellers.

Flower-sellers also carry on their business more or less in the same manner as dealers in vegetables. In big towns separate shops are seen. But in small towns, they move from house to house. Their business gets brisk at the time of marriages, festivals and local fairs. In towns and cities they prepare braids, garlands, etc. They bring flowers either from neighbouring villages or from local gardens. A flower-merchant in a big town earns from Rs. 60 to Rs. 150 per month.

Milk Sellers.

Milk-sellers or *gavalis* are either local or come from nearby villages. Persons belonging to *gavali* caste take to this occupation as a full-time profession. They keep a good number of she-buffaloes and supply milk to individual households, hotels and restaurants, dairies and to sweetmeat makers. Some others directly come from villages and distribute milk from house to house. The retail rate of better quality milk varies from 75 paise to one rupee per litre. The rate is generally high during summer when the supply of milk is insufficient and low during winter when there is a sufficient quantity of milk. Persons engaged in this occupation earn from Rs. 50 to Rs. 200 depending upon the number of buffaloes that a *gavali* keeps and also the existence of regular customers.

Blacksmiths, Carpenters and Shoe-makers.

These are the *balutedars* of the traditional village economy who still survive though in a less recognised form. In villages, these artisans are connected with the agriculturists at various stages of their operations. They are paid annually in kind for the services they render to the landholders The system of baluta-payments is gradually disappearing and there is a marked tendency to make payment in cash rather than in kind. The payment of *baluta* is generally made at the time of the harvest

In urban areas big shops of shoe-makers are found. They make a variety of footwear for men, women and children and do a very flourishing business. However, shoe-makers have to be adept in new fashions and designs which change very fast. Shoe-makers in urban areas earn between Rs. 75 and Rs. 150 per month. In rural areas these establishments are small They deal in a few varieties of shoes which are generally not fashionable but strong and durable. Shoe-makers in villages earn less than their counterparts in urban areas. Their earnings vary between Rs. 45 and Rs. 75 a month. Most of the shoe-makers have agriculture as either a main or a subsidiary

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OTHER MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS.

Blacksmiths, Carpenters and Shoe-makers

occupation. A cobbler in a town requires anvil, *rapi*, hammer, nails, leather-sewing machine, blades, thread, etc., the cost of which varies between Rs. 250 and Rs. 450.

The carpenter requires one or two saws, *wakas, patasi*, etc., the cost of which varies between Rs. 125 and Rs. 175. The daily wage of a carpenter, if employed, varies between Rs. 5 and Rs. 10. In rural areas the carpenter prepares all the agricultural implements and constructs houses for which he gets remuneration in kind from the agriculturists at the time of the harvest.

Bellows, anvil, hammers, files, wrenches, spanner, pliers, etc., constitute the equipment of a blacksmith. Throughout the year, in rural areas, the blacksmith serves the agriculturists and gets remuneration in kind at the time of agricultural operations. In urban areas. however, they make articles such as bucket, hammer, *ghamela, phavada, mot*, etc., and earn about Rs. 150 to Rs. 250 per month.

CHAPTER 9 — ECONOMIC TRENDS

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

INTRODUCTION.

IN THIS CHAPTER IT IS PROPOSED TO ANALYSE THE ECONOMIC TRENDS IN THE DISTRICT pertaining to production, prices, wages, etc., as reflected in the standard of living enjoyed by different levels of income groups. Generally, the economic trends at the district level do not vary widely from those prevailing in the country as a whole because the impact and the subsequent pressure of the economic policies are found to shape the district economy also. The strategy of economic planning has to be national in character. The policies pertaining to production, labour, capital, marketing, supplies, purchasing power of the currency unit, and taxation, which are intended to shape the national economic forces, go a long way in affecting the desired changes in the district life as a whole. In the nature of things, the idea of an independent and separate plan for a region or a part thereof is inconceivable. District is too small an area to have an independent character in a planned development unless it possesses unique natural advantages. The trends in economic life of a district are bound to keep pace with those of the nation. The forces in the economic mechanism of a district have to be more or less in consonance with those of the country.

However, some geographical, historical and economic factors give rise to regional imbalances with the result that some districts develop peculiarities of their own. The state of economic progress differs. The pattern of economic living in a particular district may not tend to keep pace with the one in the country. Hence it is of great interest and of immense value to study the economic trends in a district.

Such a study is significant because of other reasons also. In a developing economy geared up by the five-year plans, the economic life undergoes momentous changes. An evaluation of such changes is essential as a basis for future planning.

At the same time it is interesting to analyse the results of the active utilisation of the existing resources which is best reflected in the standard of living of the people. The standard of living enjoyed by the masses, which is a measure of economic prosperity depends upon a multiplicity of factors Optimum utilisation of the available factors of production in relation to the total population of the country is a *sine qua non* of a higher

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standard of living. As such, availability of ample natural resources, external factors of production, optimum population and sound economic policies interact upon one another and determine the standard of living. It is best reflected in the size and pattern of income and expenditure of an individual family.

The economy of the district underwent numerous changes during the course of the present century. Though the basic structure of the rural economy did not undergo revolutionary changes, the economic face has changed considerably since the beginning of this century. The change was accentuated as a result of planning in the post-independence period. The First World War, the Great Depression, the Second World War and the post-War economic crisis were the most significant events shaping the economic condition of the people in this country. These events in the national and international fields were reflected in the district life. The Five-Year Plans ushered in an era of economic and social development. The development programmes under the plans have been making a progressive impact on the various sectors of the district economy. The vitalising effect of the same is perceptible in the fields of agriculture, industries, commerce, communications, public health, education, etc.

STANDARD OF LIVING

STANDARD OF LIVING.

General.

For an assessment of the standard of living of the people, a sample survey was conducted at a few towns and villages* in the district. Statistical information regarding family budgets was collected from a number of families.

The observations regarding the standard of living as reflected in the income and expenditure patterns of the family budgets are given in the following pages.

During the course of this century, the concept of the standard of living has undergone considerable changes. The changes are in conformity with the changing patterns and modes of civilised existence. Broadly speaking, it may be taken to mean the state of economic life of the people. It, however, depends not only upon economic condition of the people, but also on the state of education and social development. An analysis of the standard of living becomes a study of the constantly changing patterns of income and expenditure. Such an attempt is made in the pages that follow.

With the intellectual ferment and the spirit of modern education, many of the old ways of the life appeared to be insipid and contrary to the new outlook on life. The liberal ideas which were being advocated during the national liberation movement and the influence of democratic government have gradually changed the ideas of the standard of living of individuals.

*The research staff in this office conducted the survey at Amravati, Badnera, Dhamangaon, Daryapur, Morshi Anjangaon, Chandur Achalpur, and Dharni.

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STANDARD OF LIVING.

General.

The material resources of life have been gradually increasing. Though the increase in population counteracted, to some degree, the increase in the material resources, the available aids to economic life are obviously better than before. Diversification of agricultural and mechanical production has resulted in the better supply of a number of new commodities. A number of articles of luxury, such as, radio sets, almirahs, wrist-watches, and fashionable garments, which were rarely found before, have become more common.

Besides the aids to economic life, social amenities, which have a definite impact on the standard of living of the people, have increased immensely. Educational facilities, which were meagre, are available to a great extent. Almost every sizable village has a primary school: every town or a bigger village has a high school. In Amravati district there are colleges imparting instruction in various faculties, such as, arts, science, commerce, law, medicine, engineering, agricultural science, etc.

A number of public as well as private libraries, recreational centres, cinema houses, community radio sets, etc. have contributed towards the bettering of the standard of living of the community as a whole. They have a strong impact on the outlook of the people.

For purposes of analysis, the standard of living of the people is conceived to be determined by six factors, *viz*, (1) income, (2) volume and pattern of consumption, (3) cost of living as reflected in the prices of consumer goods, (4) state of education, (5) social amenities and (6) housing conditions. The household is taken to be an unit of sampling. Taking average annual income as the basis of classification, the households are divided into three groups:—

Group I.—Households with an annual income of Rs. 4,000 and above.

Group II.—Households with an annual income varying from Rs. 1,200 to Rs. 4,000.

Group III.—Households with an annual income below Rs. 1,200.

Group I.

People in the highest income group comprise landlords, merchants, commission agents, doctors, pleaders, highly paid Government and non-Government officers, professors, industrialists, owners of transport companies, etc. The fixed income earners in this class, as in other classes who mainly comprise salaried persons and rent receivers have not benefited much due to rising prices and the fall in the purchasing power of money.

The annual income of persons in the class ranges between Rs. 4,000 and Rs. 25,000. The incomes of the agricultural landholders have inflated considerably as a result of the boom of cotton prices and prices of other cash crops. A characteristic feature of the post-war era has been the all-round appreciation of the prices of fixed assets. It has strengthened the economic position of rich agriculturists, industrialists and big merchants.

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Group I.

The pattern of consumption of these people differs considerably from that of the persons in the other two groups. The average monthly expenditure of a family in this group amounts to Rs. 347. Expenditure on foodgrains, which is about Rs. 65, is substantial because of the consumption of better quality and varied articles of foodgrains. They spend more on vegetables, ghee, oils, milk and grocery. The most important constituents of expenditure are food, clothing, education, and house rent.

During the last few decades, remarkable changes have taken place in the general pattern of expenditure of the whole community especially the families belonging to this group. A number of luxury goods, which were formerly rarely seen, have become common items of household use. Radio sets, wrist-watches, electric fans and costly furniture are found in a majority of households of this class. Comparatively well-off persons possess refrigerators, motor bicycles, motor-cars and sofa sets. With the influence of Western education and rise in money incomes in the post-war period, the spending habits of the people have assumed a varied character. Formerly, expenditure was confined to a few necessities of life. Now-a-days decency in dress is too much in the fore with the people in this income group. The costly varieties of cotton, woollen, nylon, rayon, decron and terylene cloth have entered in their shopping list. More attention is paid to health with the result that they spend more on food. Medicines form an important part of their annual budget. Educational expenditure is another significant constituent of a family budget of this group. In the case of some families this item absorbs about Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 4,000 per annum. Travelling has now become almost a habit and naturally there is a perpetual increase of expenditure on this item as well. In the case of rented houses, house rent varies from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60 in the urban areas. Very few persons, in this income group, in the rural areas are required to rent a house.

The cost of living in the urban areas is higher than that in the rural areas. This is attributable to five factors: (i) wants of the urban people are much more varied than those of their rural counterparts, (ii) there are numerous avenues of spending in the urban areas, (iii) house rent is higher in the towns, (iv) cost of services is higher in towns, and (v) prices of staple food-grains, vegetables, milk, etc., are higher in urban areas. It should, however, be noted that the benefit of lower cost of living in rural areas is offset by the existence of comparatively less sources of income.

The percentage of literacy is appreciably high in this income group though the number of educated women is smaller than that of men. The saving potential of the persons in this income group is in keeping with their higher income. Savings in insurance policies, prize bonds, unit trust and national savings

certificates have become very popular among the people in this class. It should be noted here that savings in the form of national savings certificates exceeded the target set for the district in the last year. A fairly good number of persons in the class are educated up to the graduation level.

Housing conditions in the urban areas are much better than those in the rural areas. The houses are ventilated, spacious and are provided with the usual amenities. Houses of even the rich persons in the rural areas are not so spacious and decent. House-building activities are on an increase in the towns, whereas villages have also begun to proceed in the line.

By virtue of their higher income, people in this group enjoy a better standard of living.

Group II.

The middle income group comprises landholders, traders, employees in Government and private services, teachers, doctors, pleaders, etc. Agriculturists form the most important section of the people in this class. The annual income of the constituents ranges between Rs. 1,200 and Rs. 4,000. The average monthly income of a household in the rural area is Rs. 166 and that in the urban area is Rs. 162. With the constant rise in prices of agricultural commodities the money incomes of the agricultural class have increased. This rise in money income has not, however, contributed to their economic well-being. The rise in income has been neutralised by the rising cost of living and increase in the rates of rural wages. Though the annual earnings of the salary earners have increased, their real income has not kept pace with their money income.

Cereals, clothing, milk, education and medicine constitute the main items of expenditure. The average monthly expenditure of a family in an urban area is Rs. 171 and that in rural area Rs. 154. An average family in this income group spends about Rs. 45 per month on cereals, Rs. 21 on clothing, Rs. 14 on milk and Rs. 13 on medical requirements. The other grocery articles account for about Rs. 32, whereas vegetable consumption amounts to about Rs. 9 per month.

The propensity to consume of the people in this class also has undergone remarkable changes over the last few decades. Formerly, consumption was confined to jowar, wheat, tur dal, gram, mug, oils, vegetables, necessary grocery articles, coarse cloth, rough footwear, tobacco, bidis, etc. Living was very simple and the wants of life very few. Now-a-days the people have a tendency to eat better and more varied food. Expenditure on cloth has gone up to a great extent mainly because of the use of refined and superfine varieties. More weight is given to decency and fashion than to bare needs.

Education absorbs a sizable share of the expenditure of a family. With an increase in medical facilities and health-consciousness, the expenditure on medical treatment has gone up to form a large portion of the total expenditure. Entertainment such as cinemas and dramas has become a regular feature.

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Group II.

This item absorbs about Rs. 3 per month. Travel habits of the people in this class have increased greatly. Hence, expenditure on travel forms a sizable percentage of the total.

The proportion of educated persons in this class is considerable. Though in the field of education of women much remains to be achieved, the number of educated men from this group is very large. The spread of education in rural areas is also noteworthy. The condition of houses of the people in this group is in keeping with their level of incomes. Not many people in the villages possess decent and well-built houses. The urban housing presents a complex picture on the other hand.

The people in the middle income group which covers the white-collared gentry in the urban areas and landholders and traders in the rural areas is an important economic and social class in this district.

Group III.

The low income group comprises poor peasants, tenants of land, landless labourers, craftsmen, village servants, forest workers, herdsmen; petty shopkeepers and unskilled workers. The annual income of the persons in this group is less than Rs. 1,200. They find it extremely difficult to make both ends meet. In their struggle for existence they have to resort to borrowing. In the absence of any assets which can be mortgaged they find it very difficult to get loans also. Landless labourers who are always at the mercy of landlords and big cultivators for getting employment find themselves unemployed during the period from January to June. Underemployment and instability of employment subject them to misery and a poor standard of living.

The total monthly expenditure of a family in this class on various items amounts to Rs. 93 in the urban areas and Rs. 77 in the rural areas. Expenditure on foodgrains is about Rs. 49 and Rs. 43 per month in the case of urban and rural families, respectively. Oils and vegetables account for about Rs. 16, whereas Rs. 14 to Rs. 20 are spent on clothing. An average family spends about Rs. 7 on milk, whereas a number of families in this group cannot afford to purchase even a small quantity of milk. For them milk and ghee are luxuries. Unless very much hardpressed, they do not spend on travelling, medicine and religious activities. Though some persons from this class may indulge in the luxury of going to the cinema, their economic position cannot afford it. Lower incomes and inflated expenditure have created an imbalance in the family budgets of persons belonging to this class.

To fill the gap between their income and expenditure they very often resort to borrowing.

The Government of Maharashtra provides free education to students from this class. This has facilitated education for persons belonging to this class of society. Education of children

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Group III.

was formerly neglected because they were required to work in order to supplement the earnings of their parents. Recently, conditions have improved to some extent in this respect.

The condition of their housing is unfavourable, Their abodes are drab dwellings which are exposed to rains. The household equipment consists of brass and aluminium utensils, earthenware, scanty bedding sets and a few tools for work.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

The economic resources of Amravati comprise rich agricultural land, forests, a few industrial raw materials, ample manpower, live-stock, etc.

Agricultural Resources.

The cultivable land in this district, which belongs to three types, *viz.*, shallow soils, medium deep soils and deep soils, is fertile. The deep and medium deep soils respond very favourably to green manures as well as chemical fertilisers. They are highly suitable for cotton cultivation as well as for the cultivation of jowar, bajra, *tur, mug*, groundnut. oranges, lime, banana, wheat, gram, chillis, sesamum and linseed The shallow soils are useful only for kharif crops, such as, cotton, jowar, bajra, *mug*, groundnut, *udid* and sesamum. The deep soils, which retain moisture, are suitable for kharif as well as rabi crops.

Of the total geographical area of 1,220,615 hectares (3,313.866 acres), 25,232 hectares (62,301 acres) constitute culturable waste, about 51,963 hectares (128,304 acres), fallow lands, and about 683,435 hectares (1,687,495 acres) net area sown.

Forest Resources.

Amravati district possesses extensive rich forests in the Melghat and Achalpur talukas, covering a total area of 350,119 hectares (864,493 acres) in the district in 1960-61. In fact, forest resources provide a main source of livelihood to the people in Melghat. The forests, which are an important source of revenue to the Government, are rich with a variety of timber and teak. Soft species of wood like *salai* are also available in plenty. The forest produce in the district comprises *tarwad* bark, gums. *tembhurni* leaves, *ghatboras*, *jambhul*, etc.

Industrial Raw Materials.

The raw materials available in this district are mainly agricultural.. Cotton, which is by far the most important industrial raw material in the district, is cultivated over an area of about 338,340 hectares (835,407 acres). The average annual production of cotton is about 142,000 tons. Groundnut, an important raw material for the hydrogenated oil industry, claims an average annual production of 9,000 tons in an area of 45,316 acres.

The other agricultural products which are useful for industries are linseed and castor seed.

The district does not possess geological resources and minerals enough to influence its developmental potential.

In this section an attempt is made to evaluate the extent of exploitation of the economic resources and the available factors

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Agriculture.

of production, for improvement of the economic well-being and standard of living of the people in the district. Trends in economic life over the past sixty years have been closely related with economic welfare and standard of living in this study.

Agriculture has remained the main occupation of a majority of the population for a long time. The census of 1951 returned 7,47,453 persons as dependent upon agriculture. Thus, agricultural population was returned to be 72.3 per cent of the total population of the district.

The basic structure of the agrarian economy of the district has not changed much during last 5 to 6 decades. The pattern of crops has remained more or less the same throughout the century except that a few fruit crops, such as orange and banana, have come to occupy a more important position in the agrarian complex of the district. Orange cultivation was introduced by the beginning of this century. To-day it is regarded as one of the most important commercial crops in Warud and Morshi area. An average orange crop fetches handsome returns to the cultivator. The same can also be said about bananas which have been introduced lately in the district. These garden crops have improved the economic position of the cultivators. The performance of cotton and jowar cultivation and the orange crop has an important bearing on the economic life. In 1876, cotton occupied 35.9 per cent of the cropped area; in 1881, 36.7 per cent; in 1891, 38.2 per cent; in 1901, 47.7 per cent: in 1905, 52 per cent* and in 1960-61, 50 per cent. Cotton cultivation was formerly restricted to better classes of soil, but owing to the great boom in the cotton trade and the consequent rise in prices during recent years, cotton is often grown on inferior soils.

The production of agricultural commodities also has shown an upward trend. The total production of the principal crops has been gradually increasing since the boom following the First World War. This is attributable to two principal sets of factors among numerous others. Firstly, extensive cultivation brought about by the reclamation of fallows and culturable waste lands and adoption of double crops has brought more land under cultivation. With the beginning of economic planning in the country, the Government has undertaken various programmes of expansion of the land under the plough. The Government fallow lands are being allotted to landless labourers who form farming co-operative societies. This has brought about a definite improvement in the standard of living of the beneficiaries and raised total production. The landless labourers who have been in the lowest echelons of society have begun to enjoy a better living.

Secondly, intensive cultivation and aids to reform agriculture, comprising improvement of seeds supply, irrigation facilities, fertilisers, credit facilities, soil conservation, marketing facilities, etc., have gone a long way in improving the economic welfare of the agricultural class.

* Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati District, 1911.

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The seed improvement programme, which made its humble beginning in 1927, has produced quite good results in so far as propagation of improved strains of cotton, jowar, wheat and groundnut is concerned. The cultivator has become conscious of the progressive measures. The Government established a seed multiplication and demonstration farm in 1954-55. Special mention may be made of the cotton extension scheme under which seed of Buri 0394 and Buri 147 are distributed. Every cultivator, since long, is aware of the productivity accruing from the application of organic manures. But the boom of agricultural prices has attracted the keen attention of the agriculturist who is found hunting for organic as well as inorganic fertilisers. Compost manuring and careful preservation of cowdung show a favourable trend. The Government has been supplying nitrogenous fertilisers, such as, ammonium sulphate, ammonium nitrate, urea, phosphate and mixtures through marketing co-operative societies and multipurpose co-operative societies. However, there is a heavy shortage of fertilisers, for which there is a competitive demand.

Lack of irrigation facilities is the greatest hindrance to agricultural prosperity in Amravati district. Sometime ago wells were the only source of irrigation. Recently a few minor irrigation works such as bandharas and lift irrigation works have been introduced. The farmers are encouraged to dig wells. Soil conservation which is so very important for improving the productivity of the soil has received the attention of the Government since the beginning of planning. The soil conservation operations, which are to be done collectively, consist of bunding, trenching, terracing and planting trees at strategic places. These operations have been undertaken in the Melghat and Achalpur tahsils.

Agricultural co-operation has achieved remarkable progress in the post-independence days. Co-operative movement is seeking to relieve the agricultural economy from the evils of the (1) meagre financial resources of the cultivator, (2) the private money-lenders and (3) low productivity of land. Co-operative farming, which has taken roots in the district, seeks to lessen the evils of increasing pressure of population on land, inequitable distribution of land, uneconomic size of holding, sub-division and fragmentation of land, low productivity, primitive methods of cultivation and illiteracy of the farmer.

The co-operation complex has brought about an institutional framework comprising co-operative credit societies, multipurpose societies, service co-operatives, co-operative purchase and sale societies, co-operative farming societies and consumers co-operatives. Given the requisite set of conditions, the co-operative movement promises a new economic life.

Regulation of the sale of the agricultural produce of the farmer assures him a fair return. It insures the farmer against malpractices, underhand selling and lower bidding. It is noteworthy that the cotton market at Amravati was regulated as

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early as 1872. This was followed by the regulation of Dhamangaon market in 1897, of Daryapur in 1903, of Anjangaon in 1916 and of Warud in 1932. At present there are six regulated cotton markets, including the Achalpur market. This has given the agriculturists considerable relief.

In the past the agriculturist used to follow traditional methods partly because of his meagre knowledge and partly because he lived below the margin of subsistence, and could not therefore think of experimenting with improved methods of cultivation. As the recent methods of cultivation in the community development programme demonstrated that improvement was possible, and that fertilisers and better seeds did in fact increase outturn, the cultivator has become willing and even anxious to follow improved methods.

As a sequel to the development schemes, the community programme made a valuable contribution to development by fostering keenness among the agricultural masses. The result of this awakening, community development inputs, increased irrigation and the abolition of Zamindari tenures was to raise agricultural production to its present level.

The progressive land reform legislation has brought about remarkable results in the form of some security of tenure to the tenant and higher productivity. But the legislation on ceilings has not met with success because of bogus partitions, and a large number of tenants are being deprived of the stipulated gains by the landlords. This has curbed the tenant's incentive to improve the land.

The scheme of prevention of sub-division and fragmentation of land has still not made much progress. The work of consolidation of holdings is done at quite a slow process.

The higher value of cash crops is leading to diversion of land from foodgrains to cotton, orange and banana.

Community Development.

The community development programme is a multipurpose programme, which seeks to achieve the all-round economic, social and cultural advancement of the community. It aims at reorientation of the rural sector in various aspects of life. It covers almost all important fields of activity, such as, agriculture, industries and crafts, rural arts, animal husbandry, sanitation, health, education, communications and fields allied to agriculture.

The programme which forms an integral part of the Five-Year Plans has taken deep roots in this district. The entire district is under the community development blocks. In addition to the development blocks there is a tribal block in the Melghat taluka. The community development programme has gained added vigour since the establishment of the Zilla Parishad under the scheme of democratic decentralisation. The process of economical take-off has been geared up by the machinery of the Zilla Parishad.

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Industries.

At the beginning of this century, cotton-ginning and pressing was by far the most important industry. There were 88 factories carrying on this business in 1907. Oil-pressing was the only other organised industry.

The industrial boom prevailing during the First World War, the Second World War and the post-war period gave an impetus to the growth of a number of industries such as cotton textiles, fabrication, auto workshops, furniture, cotton ginning and pressing. oil-pressing, dal mills, saw mills, fruit preservation, plastic products, storage batteries, bone-meal, soap, bakelite accessories and agricultural implements. This progress was however accidental and not inherent and the district could not be said to be industrially advanced.

Incidental to the planning programmes, the Government has been encouraging the development of small-scale industries in the district. In formulating the Second as well as the Third Five-Year Plans, the State Government has shown its determination to encourage entrepreneurs to build industries by extending to them all necessary facilities. A Master Plan for Industrialisation was prepared in 1960. The Small Industries Service Institute, Bombay, provides technical assistance to small-scale factories on such matters as the preparation of industrial schemes, factory plans, testing of raw materials, demonstration of modern machines, training and dissemination of economic information and industrial intelligence.

Industrial capital, which was not easily available in the past, is not a dormant problem now. Capital as a factor of production comes in this area from persons engaged in mining, trade and commerce. A fairly big class of cotton cultivators have been showing initiative in mobilising their savings. The mobilisation of savings is further facilitated through the 17 banking offices in the district. The Industries Department of the State provides loans for small-scale and cottage industries for the purchase of machinery. tools and raw materials. Bonafide craftsmen are also provided loan assistance. Agencies like the State Bank of India, the State Financial Corporation and the National Small Industries Corporation give financial assistance on liberal terms for the purposes of factory sites, worksheds, machinery and working capital.

Another remarkable achievement in the industrial field is the establishment of an industrial estate at Amravati. The estate which is sponsored by the Government has enabled small industrial units to have the benefits of common services. and facilities such as location, power, transport and water supply.

The Directorate of Industries has been assisting small units for the import of controlled raw materials by issuing "essentiality" certificates. Regular quotas of iron, steel and cement are issued by the Directorate.

Electric Power Supply.

The first stride towards electrification and regulation of electric supply was taken with the establishment of a thermal station

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at Khaparkheda near Nagpur in 1951. Another station at Ballarshah was commissioned in 1956. Subsequently, the capacity of Khaparkheda station was raised and new thermal stations at Paras and Bhusawal were set up. These together form a power grid with which the important places in this district are connected.

Prices.

The study of the trends of prices is a *sine qua non* for an appreciation of the economic condition and standard of living of the people. Various factors including the parity price of gold, rise in population, volume of production, imports and exports and the conditions of distribution affect the general price level. The changes due to these factors are of incidental nature; but a review of prices and the purchasing power over the last 50 years shows that there has been a rise in the prices and a fall in the purchasing power of the rupee.

No information about prices is available for the period prior to 1853. The Old Berar Gazetteer gives statistics of prices of various commodities which are reproduced below:—

(Figures in seers per rupee)

	1853-54	1859-60	1869-70
Jowar	53·33	40	20
Wheat . ..	32	26·66	10
Gram	40	32	8
Rice	40	26·66	5·71
Linseed	26·66	16	11·42

The prices of jowar and wheat between the period 1876 and 1895 are given in the following statement:—

THE PRICES OF JOWAR AND WHEAT

(Figures in seers per rupee)

Talukas	1876—80		1881—85		1886—90		1891—95	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
	Jowar	Wheat	Jowar	Wheat	Jowar	Wheat	Jowar	Wheat
Amravati	16·68	11·96	..	18·87	21·96	15·56	18·86	13·10
Chandur	18·6	11·4	27·98	19·00	21·4	16·2	19·8	13·6
Morshi	20·8	13·4	29·2	19·2	24·4	16·4	20·8	13·00
Daryapur	20·6	14·6	30·6	22·2	22·00	16·2	21·00	15·00
Ellichpur	20·4	15·2	29·8	18·8	20·00	15·6	22·2	14·4

(1 Seer=0·933 kilogram)

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Before the close of the century, the district was afflicted by two severe famines, one in 1897 and the other in 1900, when the prices of cereals stood as follows:—

(Quantity in seers sold per rupee)

Year (1)	Jowar (2)	Wheat (3)	Gram (4)	Rice (5)	Tur (6)	Bajra (7)
1897 ..	9·52	6·92	7·81	6·56	6·98	7·41
1900 ..	10·82	8·89	10·7	8·26	7·81	9·3

From 1901, the prices were almost steady at about 16 seers of jowar and about 9 seers of wheat per rupee, except in 1908 when the crops were poor.

The prices prevailing during 1910-11 are given below:—

		Seers per rupee
Jowar	...	13-14
Wheat	...	6-7
Gram	...	9-10
Rice	...	5-7
Tur	...	6-8
Bajra	...	11-13

The rise in prices of foodgrains was attributed to the large increase in cotton cultivation fetching farmers ready cash (cotton being a commercial crop) and fall in the acreage under cereals.

The prices of cotton are given in the following statement:

(Price per Khandi of 784 lbs.)

Period (1)	Amravati (2)	Chandur (3)	Morshi (4)	Ellichpur (5)	Daryapur (6)
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1872 to 1876 ..	175	174	116	162	141
1877 to 1886 ..	165	164	130	152	150
1887 to 1896 ..	146	145	143	149	160

The gradual fall in the cotton prices during the period could be explained in part by the general tenor of the prices prevailing in world markets and in part by the gradual substitution in Berar of a coarse but prolific type of cotton for a finer but less productive variety.

In 1897, the price of cotton was only Rs. 145 per khandi but went on declining till 1900 when it sharply rose to Rs. 187. Again in the following two years it declined, but in 1903 it rose

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by about 20 per cent and in 1904 reached its highest, that is Rs. 222. In the year 1908-09 the price of Amravati cotton in Bombay was Rs. 240.

During 1920-21, the prices of staple foodgrains were high. In the rural area of the district the rise in wages failed to keep pace with increased cost of foodgrains. With the abnormal conditions prevailing in the decade, prices and the cost of living fluctuated widely.*

Fluctuations of prices during the next decade (1921—30) are shown in the following table. The table gives the prices of staple foodgrains and cotton compiled for the Central Provinces and Berar.† They are more or less representative of the price trends in Amravati district.

(Prices in terms of seers per rupee)

Year	Rice	Jowar	Wheat	Gram	Cotton (ginned) Rs. per Bengali maund
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1921 ..	6·2	8·9	5·7	6·7	32·15
1922 ..	7·5	12·8	8·8	12·2	42·15
1923 .	7·3	11·9	9·5	13·2	57·11
1924 ..	6·4	9·2	7·0	10·2	44·12
1925 ..	6·3	9·8	7·3	9·9	32·50
1926 ..	6·4	8·5	7·4	8·4	26·12
1927 ..	6·7	11·3	6·0	8·7	31·12
1928 ..	6·3	8·6	7·3	7·6	28·30
1929 .	7·3	11·6	9·4	9·3	21·20
1930 ..	10·8	22·2	16·6	17·1	15·60

(1 seer = 0·933 Kilogram)

The figures for 1930 show an extraordinary slump in the prices of agricultural produce which was a feature of the world-wide depression at the end of the decade. The Depression which devastated the economies of the United States of America, the United Kingdom, France and Germany led to a momentous fall in demand for our agricultural produce in international markets. A slump in the demand for cotton and vegetable oils had a distressing effect on the Indian economy. This downward trend of prices continued till 1933 after which prices of all goods rose gradually. The outbreak of the Second World War in 1939 resulted in a sharp rise in prices. The shortage of consumer

*Census Report—Central Provinces and Berar, 1921.
†Census Report—Central Provinces and Berar 1931.

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goods and increase in the supply of money in circulation let loose the inflationary spiral. The cessation of hostilities brought down the prices slightly which again soared up during the Korean War boom of 1950. The fluctuations in the world prices were reflected in our national economy which in turn found an expression in the economy of the district also.

After the Korean War boom the prices of almost all the commodities showed a slight fall. The prices of agricultural commodities, however, were higher in 1952-53. This was mainly due to the failure of monsoons in many parts of India.

Wage Trends.

The section particularly deals with wage rates paid to agricultural labourers, as wages in the different categories of employment are governed by legislative measures.

Agricultural labourers, in Amravati district, received wage in kind in the past.*

The daily wages of a male worker ranged from four to eight annas, and those of a female worker from three to five annas in 1911. A mason received a monthly wage of Rs. 20 to Rs. 22 and a carpenter or blacksmith Rs. 22 to Rs. 30. The earnings of skilled workers in ginning and pressing factories were higher, *viz.*, Rs. 28 per mensem for a blacksmith, Rs. 50 for a fitter or an overseer and Rs. 15 to Rs. 25 for a clerk.

In recent years, wages are mainly paid in cash though a few cases of payment in kind are also found. The general level of money wages has gone up. The following statement shows the rates of wages of casual labour in the district:—

	Pre-war 1938-39	Post-war 1948-49	1959-60
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Male	0·31 to 0·37 ..	0·62 to 0·75 ..	1·25 to 2·50.
Female	0·10 to 0·12 ..	0·37 to 0·50 ..	0·75
Child	0·06 ..	0·25 ..	0·37

During the last four years, wages of all classes of labour have increased considerably. The daily wages of skilled workers engaged in sowing, deep ploughing, threshing of grains, digging wells, etc., are from Rs. 2.50 to Rs. 4. Agricultural labourers are

*Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Amravati Distirct, 1911 :—

" The cotton picker is not paid in cash ; the rate is from one-twentieth to one-tenth, according to the market ; the twentieth is the old rate. If the first picking is a twentieth share, the second should be a tenth, the third is sometimes half, because one person can collect but a small quantity in a day at the last gathering... In cutting juari (jowar) a labourer's wage is on *pula* or bundle (sheaf) with the ears, to be chosen by himself. For cutting ears on the stalks two ordinary baskets for a man, and one for a woman, is the wage ; each basket contains four seers of grain. A wheat-cutter's wage is two sheafs, yielding about four pounds, valued three annas. "

also paid at the rate of Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 1.75 per day. Women engaged in weeding, cutting and harvesting operations are paid between Re. 1 and Rs. 1.25. For picking cotton and harvesting groundnut they are paid on the basis of the quantity of cotton picked and groundnut harvested. This rate varies from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2 per maund of 28 seers*.

The system of employing annual servants (*saldars*) for agricultural work is still in vogue. A *saldar*, who is given daily food and a pair of *dhotis*, a shirt, a cap and a pair of shoes, is a full-time servant. His annual earnings range from Rs. 300 to Rs. 600 depending upon the nature of work.

The *Baluta* system, *viz*., making annual payments in kind to village artisans, has been prevalent in the district since long. The *balutedars* comprise barber, potter, shoe-maker, washerman, carpenter, blacksmith, sweeper, etc. The system is, however, on the decline. The agriculturist prefers to pay the artisans in cash according to the services rendered by them. He is reluctant to give them foodgrains because of the lucrative grain prices. This has rendered the economic position of some categories of the artisans very precarious.

Table No. 1 gives the minimum and maximum wage rates of agricultural labour as well as those of allied occupations at Achalpur and Daryapur.

Wage rates of most of the categories of labour mentioned in the table are low in the months of January, July and August because of the limited demand for their services. The rates go up in the months of October, November and February.

*For details regarding farm wages refer to section on Rural Wages given in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 9.

Economic Trends.

ECONOMIC PROSPECTS.

Wage Trends.

TABLE No. 1*

DAILY WAGE RATES IN RUPEES

	ACHALPUR						DARYAPUR					
	1950		1955		1960		1950		1955		1960	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
Skilled labour—												
(1) Carpenters	2·25	2·50	2·50	2·94	2·62	3·25	2·00	2·50	2·25	2·75	3·25	4·50
(2) Black smiths	2·25	2·50	2·37	2·94	2·44	3·00	2·25	2·75	2·50	2·75	3·25	4·00
(3) Cobblers	1·94	2·25	2·50	2·94	2·94	3·25	2·00	2·00	2·00	2·00	2·25	3·00
Field Labour—												
(1) Men	0·94	1·12	0·94	1·31	1·25	1·75	1·00	1·25	0·68	1·37	1·25	1·75
(2) Women	0·62	0·77	0·62	1·00	0·81	1·19	0·40	0·56	0·50	0·62	0·50	1·06
(3) Children	0·37	0·81	0·44	0·75	0·44	0·75	0·40	0·56	0·44	0·62	0·44	0·56
Other Agricultural Labour—												
(1) Men	0·81	1·12	0·94	1·12	1·09	1·62	0·87	1·12	1·06	1·20	1·50	2·50
(2) Women	0·62	0·94	0·62	1·00	0·81	1·12	0·47	0·62	0·56	0·56	0·62	1·31
(3) Children	0·37	0·81	0·44	0·81	0·44	0·75	0·40	0·56	0·50	0·50	0·37	0·75
Herdsmen—												
(1) Men	1·12	1·44	1·37	1·96	1·62	2·00	0·81	0·87	0·94	1·12	1·37	1·50
(2) Women	0·81	1·00	0·94	1·12	1·09	1·62	0·47	0·75	0·50	0·62	0·75	0·87
(3) Children	0·44	0·81	0·44	0·75	0·62	0·94	0·40	0·56	0·44	0·50	0·50	0·50

*Source—Tahsildars of Achalpur and Daryapur.

CHAPTER 10 — GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

INTRODUCTION.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE in the last century consisted mostly in providing security to person and property and raising the revenue necessary for the purpose. In other words, Police, Jails and Judiciary representing security, and Land Revenue, Excise, Registration and Stamps representing revenue formed the most important departments of the State. The Public Works Department was the only other branch of sufficient importance, but its activities of construction and maintenance were, apart from roads and irrigation works, confined to buildings required for the departments of Government. With the spread of Western education and the growth of political-consciousness in the country, and as a result of the gradual association of a few Indians with some aspects of the work of Government, the demand arose for the expansion of governmental activities into what were called "nation-building" departments, namely, Education, Health, Agriculture, Co-operation, etc. In the twenties and thirties of this century, after the introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford Reforms, greater emphasis came to be laid on the development of these departments. When, as a result of the Government of India Act of 1935, complete popularisation of the Provincial Government took place in 1937, the new Government attempted not only to expand the "nation-building" departments but also to take steps in the direction of creating what has now come to be generally described as a Welfare State. After the close of World War II and the attainment of Independence by India in 1947, an all-out effort is being made to achieve a Welfare State as rapidly as possible and to build up a socially directed economy. The present activities of the State, therefore, require a much more elaborate system than what was felt to be necessary during the nineteenth century.

In the description that follows in this chapter and in chapters 11–17, the departments of the State and the Central Government operating in the district have been grouped as follows:—

Chapter 10—General Administration.

Chapter 11—Revenue Administration.

Chapter 12—Law, Order and Justice.

Chapter 13—Other Departments.

CHAPTER 10.

General Administration.

Chapter 14—Local Self-Government.
Chapter 15—Education and Culture.
Chapter 16—Medical and Public Health Services.
Chapter 17—Other Social Services.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS.

During the pre-Independence days, Amravati district consisted of six tahsils and had three Sub-Divisional offices. After 15th August, 1947, the district was divided into five Sub-Divisions. The rearrangement of the boundaries of some of the tahsils was taken up in 1948-49 and some of the villages from the district were transferred to the bordering district for administrative convenience.

The district now covers an area of 12,149.69 km.^{2} (4,691 sq. miles) and has, according to 1961 census, a population of 1,232,780. The administrative divisions now stand as below:—

Sub-Division	Tahsils	Area (in km.^{2})	Population (1961 Census)
Amravati	Amravati .. .	2,157·5	382,707·
Achalpur	Achalpur	1,269·1	209,189
	Melghat	4,004·1	72,779
Daryapur	Daryapur	1,307·9	174,397
Chandur	Chandur	1,797·5	197,003
Morshi	Morshi	1,613 6	196,705

FUNCTIONARIES. Divisional Commissioner.

Amravati district is included in Nagpur Division. The Divisional Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur, has jurisdiction over Nagpur, Bhandara, Chanda, Wardha, Akola, Buldhana and Yeotmal districts also.

The Commissioner is the chief controlling authority of the Division in all matters concerned with land revenue and the administration of the Revenue Department. He acts as a link between the Collector and Government. Appeals and revision applications against the orders of the Collector under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and Tenancy Law lie with him Besides revenue matters he is also responsible for supervision of the work of the Collectors in their capacity as District Magistrates. He is responsible for the development activities in the Division and has to supervise the work of regional officers of all departments concerned with development.

The following duties have been specifically laid down for the Commissioner:—

(a) Supervision of and control over the working of Revenue Officers throughout the division;

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Divisional Commissioner.

(*b*) Exercise of executive and administrative powers to be delegated by Government or conferred on him by law;

(*c*) General inspection of offices of all departments within the division;

(*d*) Inspection of local bodies on the lines done by the Director of Local Authorities in the pre-reorganisation State of Bombay;

(*e*) Co-ordination and supervision of the activities of all Divisional Heads of Departments with particular reference to planning and development;

(*f*) Integration of the administrative set-up of the incoming areas.

Collector.

The Collector is the head of the district administration and in so far as the need and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to supervise the working of other departments also.

Revenue.

(*i*) *Revenue*.—The Collector is the custodian of Government property in land (including trees and water wherever situated) and at the same time the guardian of the interests of members of the public in land in so far as the interests of Government in land have been conceded to them. All land, wherever situated, whether applied to agricultural or other purposes, is liable to payment of land revenue except in so far as it may be expressly exempted by a special contract. Such land revenue is of three kinds, *viz*, agricultural assessment, non-agricultural assessment and miscellaneous. The Collector's duties are in respect of (1) fixation, (2) collection, and (3) accounting of all such land revenue. The assessment is fixed on each piece of land roughly in proportion to its productivity. The assessment is revised every 30 years tahsil by tahsil. A revision survey and settlement is carried out by the Land Records Department before a revision is made and the Collector is expected to review the settlement report with great care and caution. The assessment is usually guaranteed against increase for a period of 30 years. Government, however, grant suspensions and remissions in bad seasons and the determination of the amount of these suspensions and remissions is in the hands of the Collector. As regards non-agricultural assessment it can be altered when agriculturally assessed to non-agricultural rates. All this has to be done by the Collector according to the provisions of the rules under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954. Miscellaneous land revenue also has to be fixed by the Collector according to the circumstances of each case when Government land is temporarily leased. It is also realised by sale of earth, stones, usufruct of trees, revenue fines, etc.

The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector who has to see that the revenue dues are recovered punctually every year and with the minimum of coercion and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for in the branch of the

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

Revenue.

wasul-baki-navis, both at the tahsil level and the district level. However, the work of actual collection of land revenue is done by the Assistant Gram Sevaks under the control of the Zilla Parishad[1].

The following are the statistics relating to Land Revenue collections in Amravati district for 1961-62:—

No. of villages:

Khalsa	1,807.
Forest villages with their population ..	172 (with population of 15,905)

Land Revenue Demand for 1961-62:

	Rs.
Fixed land revenue	30,62,429·29
Jangal cess	3,81,747·95
Local fund cess (*Janapada* Cess)	4,74,748·96
Total ..	39,18,926·20
Suspension	8,60,777·09
Remission	1,928·47
Collections	18,71,397·00
Unauthorised balance	11,84,823·64
Fluctuating miscellaneous revenue, 1961-62 ..	19,872·00
Gross fixed revenue including non-agricultural assessment and all other dues.	17,12,084 00

Deduct :

Assessment assigned for special public purposes including forests.	(S.L.R.).
Net alienation of total *inams*	Nil
Assessment of cultivable land unoccupied ..	Nil
Free or specially reduced	Nil

Forests :

Receipts (1960-61)	Rs. 52,63,697
Charges (1960-61)	Rs. 17,29,734

The Collector is also responsible for the collection of fees and taxes under various other acts such as the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), the Indian Stamps Act (II of 1899), the Indian Court Fees Act (VII of 1870), the Bombay Entertainment Duty Act (I of 1923) and the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949). There are also other revenue Acts which contain a provision that dues under them are recoverable as arrears of land revenue. The Collector and his office have to undertake recovery of such dues whenever necessary.

[1]. The work of collection of land revenue has again been transferred to the Government in the State sector and hence is supervised by the Collector.

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES. Collector. *Revenue.*

In regard to the administration of the Forest Act the ultimate responsibility for the administration of the Forest Department, so far as his district is concerned, lies with the Collector and the Divisional Forest Officer is his assistant for the administration except in matters relating to the technique of forestry.

As regards the Prohibition Act, the Collector has to issue personal permits to liquor and drug addicts. In fact, he is the agency through which the Director of Prohibition and Excise executes the policy of the department. The administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act in its proper spirit rests with the Collector. He is also an appellate authority to hear appeals under various sections of these two Acts.

Inams.

(ii) *Inams.*—All inams have been abolished under the Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, and donations or cash grants for charitable purposes, grants to religious, charitable and public institutions and to the descendants of the Ruling Chiefs under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, have been sanctioned. With the introduction of the Abolition of the Proprietary Rights Act, the ex-Madhya Pradesh Government inaugurated a policy of abolishing alienations and all lands in the district have now been assessed to full land revenue.

Public Utility.

(iii) *Public Utility.*—The Agriculturists' Loans Act (XII of 1884) and the Land Improvement Loans Act (XIX of 1883) regulate the grant of loans to agriculturists at cheap rates for financing their agricultural operations. The Collector has to estimate the needs of his district in accordance with the policy of Government for the time being and in the event of a bad season, to make further demands for as much money as could be usefully loaned for the purpose of tiding over the need. He has to take necessary steps for the most advantageous distribution of the amount placed at his disposal and to see that the advances so made are recovered at the proper time. After the loans are advanced to the borrowers it is the duty of the Prant Officers and the Tahsildars to see that the loans are not utilised for purposes other than those for which the same were advanced.

The estates under the management of the Court of Wards through the Collector, Amravati, were relinquished in 1951, and hence no estates had to be taken up for management through the Court of Wards since then.

Accounts.

(iv) *Accounts.*—The separation of the Treasury and Revenue cadres at the district level has come into force with effect from April 1, 1955. Before the separation of the Treasury from the Revenue Department, the Treasury Officer was from Revenue Department and he had to perform various important executive functions in that connection. After the separation, the Treasury Officer became a member of the cadre of Maharashtra State Accounts Service and functioned independently. The treasuries are under the administrative control of the Finance Department. At the district headquarters, the cash business has been taken

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

Accounts.

over by the Reserve Bank of India and at the tahsil headquarters where there are non-banking treasuries, the cash business rests with the sub-treasuries managed by the Sub-Treasury Officers. The accounts are submitted to the Accountant-General and the instructions laid down in the Account Codes and Compilation of Treasury Rules are followed by the District Treasury. Before the separation of treasuries from Revenue Department the Collector and the Accountant-General carried out periodical inspections of treasuries. As a measure of administrative control the Collector inspects the District Treasury once in a year before the close of the financial year and similarly the Deputy Collectors inspect the sub-treasuries. The Collector does not, however, participate in the daily routine of treasury business. For that work the Treasury Officer is his delegate and representative.

Quasi-judicial Functions in Revenue Matters.

(iv) *Quasi-judicial functions in revenue matters.*—Among the quasi-judicial functions of the Collector on the revenue side apart from hearing appeals from the decisions of the Sub-Divisional Officers under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and various other Acts may be mentioned: (i) the revisional powers exercised under section 23 of the Bombay Mamlatdars' Courts Act (II of 1906) in respect of Tahsildars' orders under the Act (This power is delegated to an Assistant or Deputy Collector), (ii) appellate powers under section 53 and 67 of the Bombay Irrigation Act (VII of 1879), (iii) the work which the Collector does in connection with the execution of Civil Court decrees, and (iv) proceedings and awards under section 11 of the Land Acquisition Act (I of 1894).

Local Self-Government.

(v) *Local Self-Government.*—With the passing of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, the Village Panchayat Administration is looked after by Village Panchayats constituted for the villages. However, the actual control of the Village Panchayats has been transferred to the Panchayat Samitis with the passing of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act. The Collector is empowered to hold elections and bye-elections to the municipalities and the Village Panchayats. The various acts governing local bodies have conferred upon the Collector as the chief representative of Government authority to supervise the actions of the local bodies and to give them advice. He is also the Chairman of the District Selection Committee for the selection of class III and IV employees.

Officers of Other Departments.

(vi) *Officers of other Departments.*—The officers of other departments stationed at the district headquarters are: (1) the District and Sessions Judge, (2) the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad, (3) the District Superintendent of Police, (4) the Executive Engineer (B. & C.), (5) the Civil Surgeon, (6) the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (7) the Divisional Forest Officer, and (8) the District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise.

The District Judge has a separate and independent sphere of work, and as Sessions Judge he exercises appellate powers over the decisions of all Judicial magistrates in the district. The

Officers of Other Departments.

Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) has separated the magistracy into 'Judicial Magistrates' who are subordinate to the Sessions Judge and 'Executive Magistrates' who are subordinate to the District Magistrate. It has practically withdrawn all the powers of the Executive Magistrates of trial of criminal cases.

The Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad works in the capacity of an adviser to the District Selection Committee of which the Collector is the Chairman.

The District Superintendent of Police and the police force are under the control of the Collector in his capacity as the District Magistrate in so far as the maintenance of law and order is concerned.

The Executive Engineer's (Buildings and Communications) work being of a technical nature he is not directly subordinate to the Collector. However, he is expected to assist the Collector whenever required to do so. The programme of relief work is to be chalked out by him in consultation with the Collector.

The Civil Surgeon has also a separate and independent sphere of his own, but is expected to place his professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of the general district administration whenever required.

The District Agricultural officer, the Social Welfare officer, the Assistant Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Educational Inspector, the Administrative officer and the other officers have been allotted to the Zilla Parishad since May 1, 1962, and are under the control of the Chief Executive Officer, Zilla Parishad

The District Industries officer, the Treasury officer, the District Inspector of Land Records, the Employment Exchange officer, the Publicity officer and the Inspector of Shops and Establishments have intimate contact with the Collector in matters relating to their departments and have to carry out his general instructions.

The Collector is invested with the power of requisitioning the services of any officer at the district level either directly or through his superiors.

District Magistrate.

(vii) *As District Magistrate.*—The Collector's duties as District Magistrate are mostly executive. He is at the head of all other Executive Magistrates in the district. He exercises the powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Indian Penal Code.

When authorised by the State Government, the District Magistrate may invest any magistrate subordinate to him with the necessary powers Besides being in control of the police in the district, the District Magistrate has extensive powers under the Criminal Procedure Code and the Bombay Police Act (XXII of 1951) and other Acts for the maintenance of Law and Order. It is his duty to examine the records of police stations

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FUNCTIONARIES.

Collector.

District Magistrate.

in order that he may gain insight into the state of crimes in the limits of the police stations and satisfy himself that cases are being promptly disposed of.

In his executive capacity, the District Magistrate is concerned with the issue of licences and permits under the Arms Act (II of 1878), the Petroleum Act (VIII of 1899), the Explosives Act (IV of 1884) and the Poisons Act (I of 1904). He has also to supervise the general administration of these Acts and functions laid down thereunder.

District Registrar.

(viii) *As District Registrar.*—As District Registrar the Collector controls the administration of the Registration Department within his district.

Sanitation and Public Health.

(ix) *Sanitation and Public Health.*—The duties of the Collector as regards sanitation are (a) to see that sanitary measures are initiated in case of outbreak of epidemic diseases, (b) to watch and stimulate the efficiency of the daily sanitary administration of municipal committees and other sanitary authorities, and (c) to advise and encourage local bodies to improve the permanent sanitary condition of the areas under them so far as the funds at their disposal will allow. He can freely requisition the advice and technical assistance of the District Health Officer.

District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.

(x) *District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board.*—The Collector acts as President of the District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board and exercises overall control over the Board with the assistance of a paid secretary appointed from the retired military officer's cadre. He maintains liaison between ex-servicemen and their dependents, with the help of the staff sanctioned for the Board by Government. The constitution of the Board is as under:—

The District Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board is composed of 12 members, a vice-President and a President. The Collector is the *ex-officio* President of the Board while a retired military officer acts as the vice-President. This Board meets periodically and tackles problems confronting ex-servicemen and their dependents.

Control of Essential Articles.

The supply of essential articles such as foodgrains, cement, coal, iron, etc., is controlled by the Collector and the distribution made according to the policies laid down in this behalf. The post of the Food and Civil Supplies Officer was abolished with effect from 1st September 1962 and now one of the Deputy Collectors looks after food supply matters in addition to his normal duties. To prevent malpractices and ensure equitable distribution the fair price and sugar shops are occasionally inspected.

Prant Officers.

The Prant Officers.—Under the Collector are the Prant Officers who are either Assistant Collectors (I.A.S. Officers) or District Deputy Collectors (Members of the Maharashtra Civil Service). There are in all five prants or sub-divisions in the district which are in charge of Sub-Divisional Officers.

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Prant Officers.

The Prant Officers form the connecting link between the Tahsildars and the Collector. A Prant Officer exercises all the powers conferred on the Collector by the M. P. Land Revenue Code and any other law in force or by executive orders in regard to the tahsils in his charge, except such powers as the Collector may specially reserve to himself.

Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars.

The Tahsildars and the Naib-Tahsildars.—Each tahsil is in charge of a Tahsildar. He is the officer in executive charge of the tahsil.

Each tahsil has been divided into revenue circles each in charge of a Revenue Inspector. Patwaris are appointed for *Halkas*; each *Halka* contains on an average three to four villages depending upon the size of the village. Now the services of the Patwaris have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

Revenue.

(i) *Revenue.*—The Tahsildar's revenue duties are to enquire and report on cases under various Sections of the M. P. Land Revenue Code and other Acts to the higher officers who have powers to dispose of the matters. There are certain powers under the M. P. Land Revenue Code, 1954, vested in the Tahsildars under which they themselves can dispose of certain matters.

In regard to the annual demand and collection of land revenue the Tahsildar has to prepare the Jamabandi of the tahsil. The Jamabandi is an audit of the previous year's accounts. The demand for fixed agricultural revenue as well as the non-agricultural demand is settled. There are remissions and suspensions to be calculated upon the fixed demand in lean years. Remissions and suspensions are given in accordance with the crop *annewari* with the determination of which the Tahsildar is most intimately concerned. To the demand of fixed revenue is added the amount of non-agricultural assessment and fluctuating land revenue, such as that arising from the sale of trees, stones sand, melon beds, etc., when the individuals apply for them

The Tahsildar has also to supervise and inspect the work of collection of land revenue, tagai dues and other dues recoverable as arrears of land revenue. He can issue notices, impose fines, distrain and sell moveable or immoveable property under the provisions of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954. In short, he is to follow the procedure laid down in various Sections of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 and the Rules thereunder.

It is the duty of the Tahsildar to see that there is no breach of any of the conditions of the lease or any irregularities or encroachments upon Government land and to take immediate cognizance.

Applications for grant of tagai are received by the Tahsildar who makes enquiries into them through the Patwaris (Assistant Gram Sevaks), inspects the sites for the improvement of which

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FUNCTIONARIES.

Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars.

Revenue.

tagai is sought, ascertains whether the security offered is sufficient, determines what instalments for repayment would be suitable, etc. These applications are put before the Tagai Advisory Committee for advice. The final orders regarding the grant of amount of tagai are passed by the Tahsildar or Naib-Tahsildar as the case may be. Under the provisions of the Agriculturists' Loans Act and the Land Improvement Loans Act there are certain limits up to which the Tahsildar himself can grant the loan. If the granting of the loan is not within his powers he enquires into the case thoroughly and submits his report in the case for the orders of the Sub-Divisional Officer or the Collector, whoever is competent to pass final orders regarding the grant of the loan.

The Tahsildar's duties regarding tagai do not end with the granting of it. He has to see that the loan in question is properly utilised, to inspect the works undertaken with it, to watch the payment and to make recoveries from the defaulters. He is primarily responsible for the administration of the Bombay Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act (LXVII of 1948) within the areas under his charge.

Additional Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars (Mahalkaris) have been appointed for each tahsil for the work in connection with the implementation of the Tenancy Law. The Tahsildars are in overall charge of the tahsil administration and are not in any way concerned with matters coming under the purview of the Tenancy Law for which Additional Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars are appointed.

Quasi-Judicial.

(ii) *Quasi-Judicial.*—In his capacity as a tahsil officer the Tahsildar has to perform multifarious duties. He is also to enquire in respect of disputed cases in connection with the Record of Rights in each village. The matters which the Tahsildar has to enquire into are registered under appropriate heads mentioned in the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954.

Magisterial.

(iii) *Magisterial.*—Every Tahsildar is the *ex-officio* Magistrate of his tahsil. The Naib-Tahsildars are also appointed as Tahsil Magistrates. They are to hear chapter cases under the Criminal Procedure Code from various police stations allotted to them. They have to keep the District Magistrate and the Sub-Divisional Magistrates informed of all the criminal activities in their charge and take steps incidental to the maintenance of law and order with the aid of police.

Treasury and Accounts.

(iv) *Treasury and Accounts.*—As a Sub-treasury Officer the Tahsildar is in charge of a tahsil treasury which is called a Sub-treasury. The Sub-treasury is under the control of a Naib-Tahsildar designated as Sub-Treasury Officer. All money due to Government in the tahsil from land revenue, forest, excise, public works, sales tax and income-tax dues and other receipts are paid into this treasury and credited to the receipt heads and drawn from it under cheques and bills. The tahsil sub-treasury

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General Administration.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars.

Treasury and Accounts.

also works as local depot for the sale of stamps, general court-fee and postal orders of all denominations. Stock of opium is held here for sale to permit-holders.

A currency chest is maintained at almost all sub-treasuries in which surplus cash balances are deposited. From it withdrawals are made to replenish Sub-treasury balances. Sub-treasuries are treated as agencies of the Reserve Bank of India for remittance of funds.

The Tahsildar has to verify the balances in the Sub-treasury, including those of stamps and opium, on the closing day of each month. The report of the verification, together with the monthly returns of receipts under different heads, has to be submitted by the Tahsildar to the Treasury Officer at Amravati. The Sub-Treasuries are annually inspected by the Collector and the Sub-Divisional Officers. The District Treasury is also inspected every year by the Collector.

Other Administrative Duties.

(v) *Other Administrative Duties.*—In addition to the duties mentioned above the Tahsildar is responsible to the Collector and the Sub-Divisional Officer whom he has to keep constantly informed of all political happenings, outbreak of epidemics and other matters. He generally helps or guides the officers of other departments in the execution of their respective duties in so far as his tahsil is concerned. He is responsible for holding the cattle census. The Tahsildar is also expected to propagate co-operative principles in his tahsil. The Tahsildar's position in relation to the tahsil officers of other departments, e.g., the Station Officers of the Police Department, the Sub-Registrar, the Range Forest Officer, Medical Officer, Postmaster, etc., is not definable. Though they are not subordinate to him they are grouped round him and are expected to help and co-operate with him in their spheres.

Though the Tahsildar is not expected to work directly for local bodies he is usually the principal source of the Collector's information about them.

Revenue Inspectors.

The Revenue Inspectors.—In order to assist the Tahsildar in exercising proper supervision over the village officers and village servants, Revenue Inspectors are appointed for every Revenue Inspector's circle. Each such Revenue Inspector has under him 25 to 30 Patwaris (Assistant Gram Sevaks). They form a link between the Tahsildar and the village population.

The main duties of the Revenue Inspector as laid down in various manuals concerning revenue matters, and particularly the Revenue Inspector's Manual are as follows:—

(1) To supervise the work of Patwaris.

(2) To prepare, maintain and check *rasid bahis*.

(3) To visit each patwari circle in his charge once in three months and each village once in each touring season

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(4) To submit report to Tahsildar and the Sub-Divisional Officer with a copy to District Inspector of Land Records regarding condition of crops, rainfall, prices of foodgrains, fodder and water condition when called upon to do so.

(5) To report the occurrence of any calamity, i.e., outbreak of cattle disease, epidemic or anything unusual affecting the condition of the people, crop or cattle.

(6) To conduct survey or measurement of land, prepare any maps or superintend any survey operations whenever required to do so by the revenue officers.

(7) To make local enquiry in respect of correctness of entries in village records and collect information relating to land or agriculture when required by any revenue officer.

(8) To make immediate reports regarding damage from hailstorms, locusts, floods, fires, etc., and failure of water-supply, permanent deterioration of land from diluvion, etc.

(9) To attest all entries made by the patwaris in *Khasara* relating to any land improvement to ensure the exemption of such improvements from assessment.

(10) To watch the proper utilization of loans granted under Land Improvement Loans Act and Agriculturists' Loans Act and report cases of misappropriation to the Tahsildar for necessary action.

(11) To detect and report the cases of diversion of agricultural loans to non-agricultural purposes.

(12) To maintain a register of survey appliances passed by the patwaris and to check the instruments once in every three months.

(13) To check and sign the traced maps, copies of *Khasara* and *Kistabandi* prepared by the patwaris in connection with land acquisition work.

(14) To certify mutations only when they follow from the execution or cancellation of a conditional sale or relate to the imposition or discharge of a mortgage.

Patils.

The Patil is the principal village official. His duties are laid down in section 207 (Chapter XVII) of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 (M. P. II of 1955). Formerly there were Revenue and Police Patils functioning at some villages. From 1st January, 1963, the posts of Revenue Patils have been abolished. In smaller villages only one person was doing the duties of Revenue as well as Police Patil. The Police Patil's duties are laid down in Bombay Village Police Act (VIII of 1867).

The charge depends on the size of the village and *Khasara* numbers under each charge. The village in his charge comprise a *Halka*. His main duties are—

(1) To prepare *Panchsala Khasara* as per roster approved by the Collector.

FUNCTIONARIES.

Patils.

(2) To write land revenue or rental demand in *Rasid Bahis*.

(3) To prepare *Kistabandi Goshwara*.

(4) To prepare statements of sales and leases for selected villages in the prescribed form.

(5) To prepare grazing lists for issuing *charai* passes.

(6) To prepare tenants' list after *Girdawari* every year.

(7) To report cases of diversion of agricultural land to non-agricultural purposes.

(8) To report regarding breaches of condition of *Nistar Wajib-ul-arz*.

(9) To submit forecast reports of every crop in time to the district officers.

(10) To report about farm prices of commodities sold in weekly markets from selected villages.

(11) To help in the recovery of land revenue and other Government dues during the visit of revenue officers.

(12) To prepare *Irsal-patti*.

(13) To supply necessary village records to *chakbandi* officers and also to help them in their work.

Village Servants.

The village servants or Kotwals are appointed on fixed remuneration and are granted service *inam* lands. Generally, one Kotwal is appointed by Government where the village is small. More than one are appointed where the village is big. They assist the village officers to collect land revenue, to summon villagers to the *chavdi*, to carry the land revenue to the tahsil office, to help the Patil in the detection of offences and to help to apprehend known criminals and to keep law and order in the village.

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LAND RECORDS Introduction.

LAND RECORDS DEPARTMENT

THE LAND REVENUE SYSTEM PREVALENT IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT is rayatwari and is based on a complete survey, soil classification and settlement of the assessment of every field, except in 21 unsurveyed ex-jagir villages in Melghat tahsil.

The original survey settlements were carried out and completed in the district in the year shown against each taluka.

Taluka (1)	Number of villages (2)	Year in which completed (3)
Morshi	4	1871-72
Morshi	327	1872-73
Achalpur	294	1871-72
Achalpur	6	1872-73
Achalpur	3	1873-74
Achalpur	1	1896-97
Chandur Rly. ..	388	1874-75
Chandur Rly. ..	2	1870-71
Chandur Rly. ..	2	1871-72
Chandur Rly. ..	1	1872-73
Daryapur . .	266	1869
Amravati	2	1870-71
Amravati	316	1871-72
Amravati	2	1874-75
Melghat	95	1912
Melghat	21	Unsurveyed.
Melghat . ..	46	Old yoke rate system continued till 1925.

The 21 unserveyed villages are to be surveyed by the Survey Mamlatdar, Chanda. The revision settlements in the district were carried out during the years mentioned against them.

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Name of Taluka	Number of villages	Year in which Revision Settlements were carried out
Amravati Khalsa	318	1903
Amravati Khalsa	96	1904
Amravati Khalsa	10	1903
Ex.-Jagir	9	1904
Achalpur Khalsa	304	1903
Achalpur Khalsa	15	1927
Ex.-Jagir	7	1903
Chandur Khalsa	298	1904
Ex. Jagir	1	1904
Daryapur Khalsa	266	1903
Daryapur Khalsa	3	1927
Ex.-Jagir	1	1903
Palampat	6	1903
Morshi Khalsa	331	1903
Ex. Jagir	1	1903

No revision settlement was carried out in Melghat tahsil. The term of revision settlements has long before expired in all the talukas except Melghat. However, the term of settlements is extended from year to year.

Survey

The survey in this district was done with a chain of 33′ and cross-staff in all the talukas except that of Melghat. The unit of area is the English acre with its sub-division, the guntha, (121 sq. yds or 1,089 sq. feet) 40 gunthas making one acre. The area of each survey number, is separately entered in the district, tahsil, and village records under an indicative number while the area of a sub-division is shown in Measurers' records (kept in tahsil for 7 months during the fair season and in the district office for 5 months during the rainy season) and the village records under an indicative number subordinate to that of the survey number of which it forms a part.

The survey in the villages of Melghat taluka was done on the system then current in Central Provinces generally known as "the Betul Plan" All villages except 21 out of 162 were traversed, surveyed and assessed on the basis of the system in vogue in Central Provinces. Full traverse and sub-traverse lines were set up. Permanent traverse stone marks were laid down. There are no tippan books, prati books separately prepared like other talukas in the district. There are no gat books for Pot hissa measurement.

Village, Taluka and District Maps for All Surveyed Villages.

Accurate village maps have been prepared on the scale of 1″=20 chains for all the villages in all the tahsils except that of Melghat where the maps of surveyed villages are on the scale of 16″=1 mile. Those maps of former talukas show the survey number and their boundary marks and other topographical details such as roads, nallahs, wells and hills. The village maps

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Village, Taluka and District Maps for All Surveyed Villages.

of Melghat taluka show the boundaries of Survey number with traverse and sub-traverse lines fully set up and also with other topographical details. From these village maps, taluka and district maps were printed on the scales of 1″=1 mile and 1″=4 miles, respectively. In 1956, the taluka maps were printed on a scale of 1″=2 miles showing police stations, weekly market places, schools, rest-houses, etc.

Gat books showing the maps of the sub-divided survey number to the scale of 1″=10 chains or 1″=5 chains (according to the size of the field) are prepared and kept with the village patwari for each and every village in all the talukas except Melghat. No tipan book or plot book for sub-divisions is maintained in Melghat like other five talukas.

Classification.

The classification of land was done in all the talukas except that in Melghat similar to that existing in the old Bombay State. The classification in Melghat was done on the basis of the system prevalent in the Central Provinces.

The main classes of land recognised in the five tahsils were Jirayat, Bagayat and Tari (Unirrigated, Irrigated and Rice Land) and each field was classified with reference to the texture of the soil, its depth and deteriorating factors and extra advantages, if any. In the case of irrigated and rice lands, in addition to the soil factor the water factor was also classified after taking into consideration the duration of the supply and the kind of crops grown. The classification value was expressed in terms of annas.

As regards Melghat taluka the classification was made on the more modern and more accurate soil mapping system of Central Provinces. All land in occupation including land laid out as Kabil Kasht was recognised and named after the local classes of soils. They are as under:—

1. *Gowari.*—This is found in Dharni tract of Melghat tahsil. Superior deep clay soil, black in colour, it produces rabi crops. It was classed when the depth of the soil exceeded three feet.
2. *Kali I.*—Typical superior black clay soil as it is, it is free from lime stone and very retentive of moisture. The soil is useful for rabi crops than kharif. The soil was recognised when its depth was not less than two feet.
3. *Khali II.*—It is a typical black cotton soil. It differs from Kali I, in that it contains stone nodules and more sand. The soil was classed where its depth was not less than 1¾ feet.
4. *Domatta.*—It is a mixture of clay and loam soils. It was classed where its depth reached a minimum one foot.
5. *Balla I.*—The red hill soil is known as Balla I It has a coarse texture and a minimum depth of 6″. This soil often produces astonishingly good cotton and jowar crops.

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Classification.

6. *Vall II.*—It is a soil, the depth of which did not exceed 6". Much of this land is hardly cultivable. The soil classification is detailed in the prati books for all the five talukas which are preserved in the district records, while the information of soil classification for Melghat tahsil is detailed in the settlement *mids* kept in the District Survey Records with its copy at village level with a patwari.

Settlement and Assessment.

Prior to 1954 the Settlement procedure prescribed under Sections 78 to 105 of Berar Land Revenue Code was applicable to this district. Consequent to the introduction of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954, the procedure laid down in Sections 54 to 87 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code was made applicable to the district, so far as lands in non-urban areas were concerned. The procedure is briefly described below:

'Settlement' is defined as the result of operations conducted in a local area in order to determine to revise the land revenue assessment (Section 55 of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code). The Settlement Officer (appointed by the State Government) under Section 59 (of Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code) fully examines the past revenue history of the area with a view to assessing the general effect of the existing incidence of assessment on the economic condition of the area and with reference to the various statistical data and by careful enquiry in villages he collects information required for the revision of assessment.

If the settlement of any local area is to be made a forecast of the probable results of the settlement is to be prepared under the order of State Government under Section 63 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code.

A notice of the intention of the State Government to make settlement together with the proposals based on the forecast is to be published for inviting objections. Such forecast proposals are to be sent to every member of the State Legislative Assembly 21 days before the commencement of the session of the Legislative Assembly. After considering the objections if any and the resolution of the proposals that may be passed by Legislative Assembly, notification of proposed revenue survey under Section 64 is to be issued. The local area notified is held under such survey from the date of notification till another notification for closing the operations is issued.

For the purpose of assessment, the Settlement Officer divides the area to be settled into groups and in forming such groups he takes into consideration the physical features, agricultural and economic conditions and trade facilities under Section 70 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The Settlement Officer prepares the proposals of assessment rates of each group and submits them for the approval of State Government, vide Section 73 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The assessments are

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Settlement and Assessment.

so fixed that the increase in fair assessment of an agricultural holding does not ordinarily exceed 50 per cent of the original. The principles laid down in Section 76 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code are followed while fixing the fair assessment. Improvements made at the cost of the holders are exempted for the purposes of enhancement of assessment, vide Section 76 (5) of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The announcement of settlement is done by giving a notice under Section 77 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. The assessment finally announced under this Section is the Land Revenue payable annually on such land during the term of settlement unless it is modified in accordance with the provisions of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code or any other law. There is no provision for hearing objections regarding assessment rates or fair assessment in the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code. Once the assessment rates are approved by the State Government the Settlement Officer calculates the fair assessment on each holding in accordance with those assessment rates. The term of Settlement is to be fixed by the State Government and it is not to be less than 30 years (section 80 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code). The State Government can reduce during the currency of settlement the assessment, if it finds necessary, after considering the general conditions, for such period as it may deem fit. The term of settlement can be reduced to 20 years by the State Government for special reasons.

For the assessment or reassessment of lands in urban areas, no forecast report is required to be prepared nor is the notification required to be published.

Record-of Rights.

The Record-of-Rights in form 'A' was introduced in the khalsa villages of all the talukas except that of Melghat taluka, in 1912. As regards the then Jagir villages it was prepared in the first instance in 1937-38 in the forms B, BB, C, CC, and O (parts A and B). After the abolition of proprietary rights in these villages it was revised in form A (prescribed under Rule 2 of Rules under Section 103 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code) under the supervision of the Record-of-Rights Officer, Berar, in 1957-58. No Record-of-Rights has been introduced in Melghat tahsil as it has been exempted from the provisions of Chapter IX of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code (Section 114). The Berar Land Revenue Code also has exempted this taluka from the preparation of Record-of-Rights (Section 121 of the Berar Land Revenue Code). The Record-of-Rights was being maintained in this district by the Revenue Staff under Section 108 of the Berar Land Revenue Code and the rules framed thereunder. Since 1954 those are being maintained, vide section 103 of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code and the rules framed thereunder. The Record-of-Rights contains the following particulars —

(*a*) The names of holders of land.

(*b*) The names of occupancy tenants and protected lessees.

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(c) The nature and extent of the respective interests of such persons and the conditions of liabilities, if any, attaching thereto.

(d) The rent of land revenue, if any, payable by such person.

(e) Such other particulars as prescribed by the rule under this Section.

Any acquisition of a right in land is to be reported to the village officers by the person acquiring it unless it is registered. Failure to carry out this obligation is punishable under law.

Administrative set-up.

This district formed part of Madhya Pradesh till 1st November, 1956. There was a separate Survey and Settlement Department for Madhya Pradesh. Now the head of the Land Records Department is Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records, Maharashtra State, Poona.

Settlement Commissioner.

The Settlement Commissioner and the Director of Land Records, Maharashtra State, Poona, is the head of the department. He is assisted in his work by the Regional Deputy Directors. The Superintendent of Land Records is the Officer next to the Regional Deputy Director. The jurisdiction of the Superintendent of Land Records, Nagpur, who is responsible to the Regional Deputy Director at Nagpur extends over all the eight districts of the Vidarbha region. Under him are the District Superintendents of Land Records (District Inspectors of Land Records) assisted by the District Assistant Superintendents of Land Records. The District Superintendent and the Assistant District Superintendent are assisted in their work by Measurers, Nazul Maintenance Surveyors (for the District Survey Record Room), Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors, Revenue Inspectors, Patwaris and Survey Clerks.

District Superintendent of Land Records.

The District Superintendent of Land Records has to supervise and inspect the works of Revenue Inspectors, Patwaris, Measurers, Survey Clerks, Nazul Maintenance Surveyors and Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors.

He is to arrange for the training of Patwaris and holding of their examinations. He is to see that all Revenue Inspectors under him know their duties. He has also to satisfy himself that the District Survey Records are properly maintained.

The District Superintendent of Land Records is under the immediate control of the Collector and his immediate superior in all matters of leave, allowances and discipline is the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records. Assistant Superintendent of Land Records works under the supervision of the District Superintendent of Land Records and is otherwise controlled by the Collector and the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records in the same way and manner as the District Superintendent of Land Records. He is to assist the District Superintendent of Land Records in all the inspections and office work.

The main duties of the other Land Records officials are as follows:—

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. LAND RECORDS. Administrative set-up. *Revenue Inspector.*

Revenue Inspector.—He is to supervise the work of patwaris in his circle and to check the village accounts of all the villages under his charge. He is to detail the defaulters of Government dues and to see that every Patwari has maintained the Register of Records up-to-date and all mutations have been recorded. He has to check the following records prepared by the patwaris:—

(1) Crop Statements, (2) Jamabandi Statements, (3) Boundary Marks Statements, (4) Statement of Live-Stock and Agricultural Implements, and (5) Village Accounts. The circle of Revenue Inspector consists of 70 to 80 villages with an area of 70,000 to 80,000 occupied acres. About 20 patwaris work under him. He keeps close watch over the recovery of Government money by village officials and has to see that all the Government money recovered by them is credited to the Government without delay. He is held responsible if there is any defalcation of Government money by the village officers.

He has to get prepared the Annewari Statements of crops in case of a crop failure. He has to do all the measurement work except 'pot-hissa' measurement in all the villages in his circle and has to prepare sketches, etc.

Measurers.

Measurers.—There is a permanent staff of 5 measurers in the district. They are to measure the sub-divisions in their talukas and to work out the areas of the measured sub-divisions. They have to prepare 'Gat Maps' for the patwaris also.

Survey Clerk.

Survey Clerk.—He has to maintain the district survey records, make corrections in the survey records and issue *Kami Jasti Patraks* regarding the changes in area and assessment according to orders in revenue cases. He has to issue village and tahsil maps to Government officials and public after due corrections and has to keep account of them. He has to supply *tipan utaras* to all Revenue Inspectors or Tahsildars in the district. He is directly subordinate to the District Superintendent of Land Records.

Nazul Maintenance Surveyor and Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor.—Nazul Maintenance Surveyor is responsible for the proper maintenance of the Register of Records of the town maintained by the Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor. He has to certify the mutations recorded by the Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor and has to check the base lines and traverse stones in the towns. He has to correct the maps and has to prepare the field books for new changes. He has to write the figures of demand of nazul revenue in the demand register. He is directly subordinate to the Nazul Officer.

The main duty of the Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor is to record mutations after due enquiry and to maintain the Register of Records up-to-date. Although they are directly

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Administrative set-up.

Patwari.

Cadastral Surveyors.

subordinate to the Nazul Officers, they are under the technical and administrative control of the District Superintendent of Land Records and the Superintendent of Land Records, Nagpur Circle, Nagpur.

The patwari is Land Record Official at the village level. He prepares the original annual records and maintains Record of Rights and other records concerning land. He is also subordinate to the Revenue Officer. The charge of the Patwari consists of 3,740 acres of occupied area, on an average. He maintains the village accounts and helps the *patel* for recovery of Government money.

All the measurement work except that of the *pot-hissa* measurement in the district is carried out by the Revenue Inspectors as mentioned above. A temporary staff of cadastral surveyors is created, nowadays, when the volume of measurement work increases and where it is beyond the scope of the normal staff to take up the work of measurement connected with the land acquisition cases.

District Survey Record Room

The survey records prepared at the time of settlements are kept in the District Survey Records room and one official designated as Survey Clerk is placed in charge of the same. He belongs to the Revenue Department and must possess perfect knowledge of the survey system. The duties of the Survey Clerk have been described above.

Settlement of Nazul Towns.

The settlement of the towns in this district was carried out in the years as shown below:—

Name of City/Town	Year of introduction		Staff in charge of maintenance
	Original	Revision	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) Amravati ..	1927-28	..	4 Nazul Maintenance Surveyors and 2 Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyors.
(2) Badnera ..	1930	..	One Nazul Maintenance Surveyor.
(3) Paratwada ..	1932	..	One Nazul Maintenance Surveyor.
(4) Achalpur ..	1932	..	One Nazul Maintenance Surveyor and one Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor.
(5) Anjangaon ..	1933	..	One Nazul Maintenance Surveyor and One Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor.
(6) Chikhaldara ..	..	..	The Assistant Nazul Maintenance Surveyor, Anjangaon, works for Chikhaldara town for one week in the month. There is no Nazul Maintenance Surveyor for Chikhaldara town.
(7) Dhamangaon ..	1933	..	One Nazul Maintenance Surveyor.

Settlement of Nazul Towns.

The cost of maintenance of town survey is borne by Government, and the municipal committees get four-fifths of the income, except premium, after deducting the expenditure. The village sites of all the ex-alienated villages, except those of the 21 unsurveyed villages have also been surveyed by the special staff of Record-of-Rights Officer, Berar in 1957-58. These village site surveys are not under regular maintenance. There are a'so waste site registers at each village in all the talukas except in Melghat taluka in the district.

Pot-Hissa Surveyors.

The permanent staff of five pot-hissa surveyors in the district carries out the measurement work of the sub-divisions of survey numbers for keeping the Record of Rights up-to-date. During the monsoons the staff does the office work of cross-checking of the area calculations and prepares new *tipan utaras* and plots (to the scale) for the next open season. It also prepares and checks the *gat* maps to be supplied to the patwaris. Prior to the introduction of the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, measurement fee of sub-divisions measured was being recovered from the occupants of the sub-divisions concerned, but it is not now being recovered as there is no provision in the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code for such recovery.

Special Schemes.

In addition to the normal duties of the department referred to in the foregoing paragraphs, the Land Records Department is, at present, entrusted with the execution of the following special schemes:—

1. Consolidation of Holdings under the Bombay Prevention of Fragmentation and Consolidation of Holdings Act, 1947.
2. Cadastral Survey of unsurveyed ex-jagir villages (in Melghat tahsil).

The Assistant Consolidation Officer, Amravati, is the District Officer entrusted with the preparation and execution of the Consolidation of Holdings Scheme. He is a Gazetted Officer of the cadre of District Inspector of Land Records, appointed by the Settlement Commissioner and Director of Land Records. He is immediately subordinate to the Consolidation Officer, Akola and the Settlement Commissioner. His subordinate staff comprises: (a) 6 Surveyors under one Nimtandar to assist him in the up-to-date measurement of sub-divisions and bringing the Record-of-Rights up-to-date and preparation of the scheme of consolidation and (b) One circle inspector to assist him in the execution of the scheme of consolidation of holdings after confirmation by the Settlement Commissioner or Government as the case may be.

The special staff of the Record-of-Rights Officer, Berar (Yeotmal), has carried out the measurement of sub-divisions, etc., of survey numbers in the surveyed ex-Jagir villages in this district. The measurement and classification work in the 21 unsurveyed ex-Jagir villages which could not be done by this staff will now be done by the Survey Mamlatdar, Chanda. The cost

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of this work will be borne by the State Government. The traverse survey of villages has been completed and the detailed field-to-field survey is in progress. The work is expected to be completed shortly. The preparation of maps is also in progress. The work of preparation of Record-of-Rights will be taken up soon after the completion of survey, as mentioned above.

REGISTRATION DEPARTMENT

REGISTRATION. Functions.

The main functions of the Registration Department are registration of documents under Indian Registration Act. and registration of births, and deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act.

Organisation.

The Inspector-General of Registration is the head of the department, who supervises the registration work in the district. The Collector of the district functions as *ex-officio* District Registrar. Under the District Registrar there are Sub-Registrars. In 1960 there were 12 Sub-Registrars for Amravati Camp, Amravati Town, Nandgaon Kh., Achalpur, Chandur Bazar, Daryapur, Anjangaon, Chandur Railway, Dhamangaon, Morshi Warud and Melghat. No departmental Sub-Registrar is appointed at Melghat where the Mamlatdar works as the *ex-officio* Sub-Registrar.

The Sub-Registrars are assisted by the necessary staff. The appointments of the Sub-Registrars are made by the Inspector-General of Registration while those of the staff subordinate to him are made by the District Registrar.

The District Registrar carries out the instructions of the Inspector-General of Registration in all departmental matters. and if he has any suggestions to make for the improvement of the registration system, they are to be submitted to the Inspector-General. The Sub-Registrar seeks the guidance of the District Registrar in matters of the day-to-day administration. The District Registrar visits the Sub-Registry offices in his district at least once in every two years and sends his memorandum of inspection to the Inspector-General of Registration. He hears appeals and applications referred to him under Sections 72 and 73 of the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908) against refusals to register documents by the Sub-Registrars under him. Under Sections 25 and 34 of the Act, he is empowered to condone delays in presentation of documents and appearance of executants provided the delay does not exceed four months, and to direct that the documents concerned be registered on payment of a fine not exceeding ten times the proper registration fee. He is also competent to order refunds in the case of surcharges and to grant full or partial remission of safe custody fees in suitable cases. A will or codicil may be deposited with him under a sealed cover, and it may be got registered at the cost of the party desiring it, after the depositor's death.

The Senior Sub-Registrars are appointed as Inspectors of Registration. They inspect the work of all Sub-Registry offices in their charge. Amravati district is under the Inspector of Registration, Amravati Division.

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REGISTRATION.

Registration of Documents.

Under the Indian Registration Act (XVI of 1908), compulsory registration is required in the case of certain documents and optional registration is provided for certain other documents. Documents which fulfil the prescribed requirements and for which the required stamp duty and registration fees are paid are registered. A record of such registered documents is kept and extracts of documents affecting immoveable property in respect of which Record-of-Rights is maintained are sent to the offices concerned for making mutations. Certified copies from the preserved records of registered documents are also issued to parties who apply for them.

In all, 20,974 documents were registered in the district in 1960. Of these, 19,562 documents falling under compulsory registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 3,74,54,418; 377 documents falling under optional registration were of the aggregate value of Rs. 2,43,257 and 767 documents affecting moveable property were of the aggregate value of Rs. 1,02,25,026. The rest, viz., 268 documents were wills.

Fees are levied for registration according to the prescribed scale, but the State Government has exempted or partially exempted the levy of registration fees in respect of document pertaining to the Co-operative Societies registered under the Co-operative Societies Act.

Photo Copying System.

The photo copying system has not been extended to this district. All offices adopt the hand copying system.

Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1954.

The Bombay Registration of Marriages Act, 1954, has not been extended to the Vidarbha region.

The Parsi Marriage and Divorce Act, 1936 and the Special Marriages Act, 1954, are not administered through the Registration department in the Vidarbha region as was done in the erstwhile State of Bombay. The District Registrars in Vidarbha region are appointed as Registrars of Births and Deaths under the Births, Deaths and Marriages Act, 1886.

Income and Expenditure.

The average annual income of the Amravati Registration district is Rs. 2,41,156 and the annual expenditure, Rs. 64,105*.

SALES TAX DEPARTMENT

SALES TAX. General.

Sales Tax, an indirect tax, is an important source of revenue to the state exchequer. A general sales tax was introduced by the Central Provinces and Berar Sales Tax Act, 1947, at a rate of six pies in the rupee levied on the last stage of sale. On certain non-essential goods the incidence was one anna in a rupee. The original limits of turnover for liability to

on the figures for the triennium 1958—1960

CHAPTER 11. Revenue Administration. SALES TAX. General.

registration were Rs. 5,000 per year for importers, Rs. 10,000 for manufacturers and Rs. 25,000 for other dealers. The list of items exempted from taxation comprised, largely, the necessaries of life. A provision for voluntary registration for dealers whose turnover did not exceed the prescribed limits was introduced in 1948. In 1949, a levy at half the regular rate was introduced in respect of goods transported to other States. The general rate was similarly reduced to three pies in a rupee on goods of special importance, namely, bullion and specie and vegetable oils (excepting hydrogenated products). The position originally obtaining under the Central Provinces Act was that the purchase price was added to the taxable turnover where goods were purchased by registered dealers against their registration certificates free of tax and were resold outside the area of the Madhya Pradesh State. Even after the reorganisation, Nagpur remains an important centre for the distribution of goods to the Mahakoshal area of the Madhya Pradesh State and so the original restriction was found to be onerous and detrimental to the interests of the dealers of Nagpur. This restriction was accordingly removed by the Government after the reorganisation.

Raw cotton, the sales of which were tax-free in the Madhya Pradesh at the time of the reorganisation, was brought into the list of taxed goods after reorganisation. The Bombay Sales Tax Act, 1959, was applied to the region from January 1, 1960.

Administrative Organisation.

For the purpose of administration, Amravati district has been taken as a homogeneous unit. Prior to April 1, 1953, District Excise Officer, Amravati and executive staff under him were declared as Sales Tax Officers, Assistant Sales Tax Officers and Sales Tax Inspectors, respectively. The Sales Tax department was separated completely from the Excise department from April 1, 1953.

Under the Act and Rules, the Sales Tax Officer exercises the powers delegated to him by the Commissioner of Sales Tax for the general administration of the Act. He registers the dealers liable to pay tax under the Act and receives periodical returns from them which show their gross turnover, taxable turnover and tax payable by them. After the closing of the year (followed by the dealers), an assessment case of all the returns for that year is prepared and the dealer is assessed by the Sales Tax Officer or the Assistant Sales Tax Officer, as the case may be. Up to June 1958, the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax used to exercise the powers of assessment of dealers whose gross and taxable turnover exceeded Rs 20 lakhs and four lakhs, respectively. In June 1958, powers of assessment in case of dealers whose gross turnover exceeded Rs. 1 lakh in the preceding year were delegated to the Sales Tax Officers and Assistant Commissioners were thus relieved of assessment work. The Assistant Sales Tax Officers were assessing dealers having gross turnover below Rs. 1 lakh. The Sales Tax Officer is also responsible for detection of cases involving evasion of tax, etc In short, the Sales Tax Officer is the head of the office and is

Revenue Administration.

SALES TAX.

Administrative Organisation.

principally responsible for the general administration of the Act in his circle.

The officer next above the Sales Tax Officer is the Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax and he is the first appellate authority. Any order passed by the Sales Tax Officer is appealable. The Assistant Commissioner is also in charge of administration of the Act in the circles in his jurisdiction. He guides the Sales Tax Officer in complicated matters. Against the appellate order passed by Assistant Commissioner, Sales Tax, second appeal could be made before the Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax. Against the second appellate order, the dealer could prefer revision before the Board of Revenue or the Commissioner of Sales Tax. In the latter case, however, the decision of the Commissioner of Sales Tax is final whereas the order of the Board of Revenue is subject to a reference and ultimate revision in the High Court.

Statistics of Collections.

The following table gives the amount of Sales Tax collected in the Amravati district and the collection charges and the proportion of collection charges to the amount collected. The collection charges, however, include the expenditure of the office of the Assistant Commissioner and that of the Sales Tax Officer.

Year (1)	Amount collected (2)	Collection charges (3)	Proportion of collection charges to the amount collected (4)
	Rs.	Rs.	
1957-58	26,89,171	25,963	0 97
1958-59	21,25,079	68,848	3 23
1959-60	20,67,071	1,07,012	5·17
1960-61	21 52,361	1,24,291	5 77

MOTOR VEHICLES DEPARTMENT

MOTOR VEHICLES.

Motor Vehicles Act.

The Motor Vehicles Department with headquarters at Bombay is concerned with the administration of the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, as amended by Act 100 of 1956 and the Bombay Motor Vehicles Rules, 1959, the Bombay Motor Vehicles Taxation Act, 1958, the Bombay Motor Vehicles Taxation Rules, 1959; the Bombay Motor Vehicles (Taxation of Passengers) Act, 1959 and the rules made thereunder. The department is headed by the Director of Transport, Maharashtra State For the purposes of administration of the above Acts in the State, Regional Transport Offices have been set up in Bombay, Poona, Thana, Nagpur, Aurangabad with Sub-Regional Offices at Amravati. Kolhapur and

CHAPTER 11. — Revenue Administration. MOTOR VEHICLES.

Nasik. For the enforcement of Chapter IV of the Indian Motor Vehicles Act, 1939, a State Transport Authority and a Regional Transport Authority have also been constituted by Government by Notification under Section 44 of the Act.

The jurisdiction of the Regional Transport Officer, Nagpur, extends over the districts of Nagpur, Bhandara, Chanda, Wardha, Yeotmal, Akola and Buldhana besides Amravati. However, for administrative convenience, the work in Amravati, Yeotmal, Akola and Buldhana districts is controlled by the Assistant Regional Transport Officer with headquarters at Amravati.

Regional Transport Authority.

The Regional Transport Authority, Nagpur, comprises the Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur, the Superintending Engineer, Roads and Buildings, Amravati ; the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Nagpur Range, two non-officials nominated by notification by Government and the Regional Transport Officer who works as the Secretary to the Regional Transport Authority.

The Regional Transport Officer, Nagpur, besides being the Secretary, Regional Transport Authority, is also the licensing authority and the registering authority under the several enactments enumerated above. He is assisted by a Regional Supervisor, four Motor Vehicles Inspectors, two Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors, along with the necessary ministerial staff. In addition, there is also an Assistant Regional Transport Officer with his office at Amravati who is the licensing and registering authority for the four districts under his jurisdiction. The Assistant Regional Transport Officer, Amravati, exercises certain powers delegated to him by the Regional Transport Authority. Nagpur, from time to time, so far as the working of Chapter IV of the Act is concerned

The duties of Motor Vehicles Inspectors are to inspect transport vehicles (goods vehicles, buses and cabs) and issue certificates of fitness ; to inspect vehicles for registration ; to carry out tests of competence of persons to drive motor vehicles ; to carry out tests of persons applying for grant of conductor's licences in stage carriages ; to inspect vehicles involved in accidents whenever their services are requisitioned by the Police ; to carry out tours for the purposes of enforcement of the provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act and Rules and to check and report infringements to the Regional Transport Officer for further action ; to collect taxes and issue learner's licences and to effect renewal of driving licences and conductor's licences at tour centres. The Assistant Motor Vehicles Inspectors generally do not act independently but assist the Motor Vehicles Inspectors in the discharge of their duties.

Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act.

Tax on all kinds of motor vehicles is levied under the Bombay Motor Vehicles Tax Act, 1958 and rules made thereunder. Taxes can be paid annually, half-yearly, or quarterly, either by cash, money order, treasury challan or cheque. The owner of a

vehicle has to send an advance intimation in the form prescribed in the rules, for the Taxation Authority, when he desires to keep it in non-use.

Stamps Department

Stamps. Organisation.

The Superintendent of Stamps, with Bombay as headquarters, is the authority who controls the supply and sale of State stamps in the State. In the Amravati district, the Collector of Amravati is the administrative head of the department. There is no independent officer in the district specially in charge of stamps. The work is done by the Treasury Head Clerk under the supervision of the Treasury Officer, Amravati, who is a gazetted officer. He has the charge of the local depot at Amravati and is responsible for the maintenance of the stock of stamps, their distribution to the branch depots and their sale to the public. The Treasury Officer is empowered to grant refunds of the value of unused, spoiled and obsolete stamps presented to the treasury within the prescribed period. A branch depot is located at every taluka or mahal headquarters and is in charge of a Sub-Treasury Officer, i.e., the Tahsildar or Naib-Tahsildar.

To suit public convenience, stamps are sold not only at the local depot and the branch depots but also at various other centres by vendors authorised by Government. There are 8 such vendors in the district. Sales are restricted to the value not exceeding Rs. 50 in each case. Similarly, non-judicial stamps above the value of Rs. 50 in each case are sold at the Treasury and Sub-Treasury and the Stamp Head Clerk and the Sub-Treasury Officers work as *ex-officio* stamp vendors. Stamps below this value in each case are sold by the authorised vendors.

The total income from stamp duty realised in the Amravati district during 1961-62 was Rs. 5,07,437 for judicial stamps and Rs 6,28,804 for non-judicial stamps. The vendors are allowed a small discount, and this in the year 1961-62 amounted to Rs. 2,818 under judicial stamps and Rs. 20,567 under non-judicial stamps.

Income Tax Department

Income Tax Organisation.

Income Tax is a Central Tax and the Income Tax Department is centrally controlled by a statutory body, viz., the Central Board of Direct Taxes with Delhi as headquarters. It has been established under the Central Board of Revenue Act, 1924. The country is divided into units which are normally co-extensive with each State. However, there are five Income Tax Commissioners in Maharashtra, one each for Bombay City I, Bombay City II, Bombay City III, Bombay Central and Poona. The jurisdiction of the Income Tax Commissioner, Poona, extends over the whole of Maharashtra except the City of Bombay and the districts of Nagpur and Bhandara. The Nagpur and Bhandara districts are under the charge of the Commissioner of Income Tax, Madhya Pradesh, for administrative convenience.

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

INCOME TAX.

Organisation.

At Amravati, there are two Income Tax Officers for carrying out the duties as required under the Income Tax Act, 1922. Besides doing the work connected with Income Tax, they have also to collect Wealth Tax under the Wealth Tax Act, 1957, Expenditure Tax under the Expenditure Tax Act, 1958 and the Gift Tax under the Gift Tax Act, 1958, as they have been appointed as Wealth Tax Officers, Expenditure Tax Officers and the Gift Tax Officers under those Acts.

The jurisdiction of the Income Tax Officer, 'A' Ward, Amravati, extends over all persons (other than companies, salary earners and refund cases) whose place of assessment is in the municipal town area of Amravati excluding the old city surrounded by the fort wall inside the Amba Gate, the Jawahar Gate and the Nagpuri Gate and the municipal town area in Paratwada in Achalpur tahsil. It also extends over all the partners of firms assessed by him and all other companies in the district.

The Income Tax Officer, 'B' Ward, Amravati, has jurisdiction over all persons (other than companies, salary earners and cases of refund) whose place of assessment is in Amravati district excluding the area assigned to the Income Tax Officer, 'A' Ward, Amravati. It also extends over all the partners of firms assessed by him.

They are responsible to the Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax whose headquarters is at Akola. The appeals against their orders are to be preferred to the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax also stationed at Akola.

Each Income Tax Officer is assisted by an Inspector of Income Tax whose duty is to help the Income Tax Officer by doing field work by finding out new assessees (tax payers), to collect useful data for assessment and to execute notices, warrants, etc., as well as to effect recoveries. They are the non-gazetted executive employees of the department. Each Income Tax Officer is also assisted by the required number of ministerial staff.

Income-tax is an annual charge and the tax is levied according to the provisions of the Finance Act, passed by the Lok Sabha every year.

Statistics.

The following is the statistical information regarding the Income Tax in Amravati district:—

	Number of Assessees on GIR as on 1-4-64	Budget Collection during 1963-64 in '000
		Rs.
'A' Ward	1,495	1,584
'B' Ward	1,588	912

CHAPTER 11.

Revenue Administration.

INCOME TAX. Statistics.

The statistical information in respect of the other taxes is as under:—

	Number of Assessees as on 1-4-64	Budget Collection for 1963-64 in '000
		Rs.
Wealth Tax	60	50
'A' Ward . ..	39	32
'B' Ward	21	18
Gift Tax	10	6
'A' Ward	6	1
'B' Ward	4	5
Expenditure Tax—		
'A' Ward	..	..
'B' Ward	..	..

CHAPTER 12—LAW, ORDER AND JUSTICE

POLICE DEPARTMENT

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

THE PRIMARY DUTY OF THE POLICE is prevention and detection of crime and maintenance of law and order, for which they have to obtain intelligence concerning commission of cognisable offences or plans to commit them and to take steps to prevent such offences or to bring the offenders to justice. In a Welfare State, greater responsibilities and duties devolve on the police. In their day to day work they have to maintain law and order, prevent public nuisances, escort prisoners and treasure, apprehend offenders, control traffic, serve summonses and warrants, look after the health and comforts of person in custody, prevent loss or damage by flood or fire to person or property, prevent accident or danger to the public, destroy wild animals where they constitute a nuisance, destroy stray dogs, collect political intelligence, verify characters, enforce special or local laws in connection with the epidemic diseases, register and watch foreigners, etc

Organisation.

Under Section 17 of the Bombay Police Act, the District Magistrate has full control over the district police force. In exercising this authority, the District Magistrate is subject to the rules and orders made by the State Government and to the lawful orders of the Revenue Commissioner. Under Section 6 (1) of the Bombay Police Act, 1951, the direction and supervision of the whole police force in the State vest with the Inspector-General of Police, who is assisted by one or more Assistant Inspectors-General of Police of the rank of the District Superintendent of Police. It is the province of the Inspector General of Police to advise the Government on all problems, specially those connected with police personnel, their training and equipment, supplies and stores, financial provision required for the maintenance of the force and other powers and duties of various grades of officers, and to make rules and orders for the guidance of officers on all such matters. He has to keep in touch by frequent inspections with the requirements of efficiency of the police force to keep due watch over all matters relating to the maintenance of law and order and prevention and detection of crime.

For the purpose of administration, the State is divided into four Police Ranges besides Greater Bombay. These four ranges

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Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Organisation.

correspond with the four divisions for which Divisional Commissioners are appointed with their headquarters at Bombay, Poona, Nagpur and Aurangabad. Commissioner of Police of each of the four ranges is under the control of a Deputy Inspector-General of Police. Below these officers are the District Superintendents of Police in charge of Districts and Superintendents of Police in charge of the Railways.

Subject to the control of the District Magistrate and the Inspector-General of Police in their spheres of authority, the direction and regulation of the police throughout the district is vested in the District Superintendent of Police, the executive head of the force and has full control over the internal economy of the force under him including recruitment of constabulary, their equipment, training, arms, prevention and detection of crime, prosecution, discipline and other related matters.

There are 31 police stations and 2 out-posts in the district which are divided in three sub-divisions for the purpose of administration and control of crime. The Amravati City Sub-Division consists of six police stations within the radius of 10 miles of the City, the Amravati Rural Sub-Division, 13 police stations and the Achalpur Sub-Division, 12 police stations. Each of the Sub-Division is under the charge of a Deputy Superintendent of Police or an Assistant Superintendent of Police. The Sub-Divisional Police Officers are further assisted by the Circle Police Inspectors.

For recruitment and training of the constabulary and other branches of work, there is one headquarter at Amravati which is in charge of the Home Police Inspector, who is assisted by a Reserve Police Sub-Inspector.

Strength.

On November 1, 1956, there were 61 officers and 1,047 men in the police force of the district. The strength was augmented from time to time and on December 31, 1960, the police force of the district consisted of 78 officers and 1,586 men. The District Police Force at present, is composed of:

District Superintendent of Police, 1; Sub-Divisional Police Officers, 3; Police Inspectors, 7; Police Sub-Inspectors, 67 including one armed Police Sub-Inspector; 318 Head Constables including 235 armed and 1,267 Police Constables including 393 armed. The total strength of the police force worked out to 1 Policeman, for 28 square miles and for 738.8 persons.

As the head of the force, the primary duties of the District Superintendent of Police are to keep the force under his control properly trained, efficient and contented and to ensure by constant supervision that prevention, investigation and detection of crime in the district are properly and efficiently dealt with. For this purpose he has to associate with the public to ascertain their needs generally and to be constantly in touch with his subordinates. He also has to carry out inspections of the police stations and other branches of work annually.

Strength.

Assistant Superintendents of Police or Deputy Superintendents of Police are responsible for all crimes in their charge and visitation of serious offences. Under the general orders of the Deputy Superintendent of Police, they are responsible for the efficiency and discipline of officers and men under them and for holding detailed inspections of police stations and out-posts at regular intervals.

Police Inspectors are placed in charge of two of the police stations in Amravati City Division on account of heavy work. They perform the same duties as those of the Sub-Inspectors in charge of the police stations.

To each of the Sub-Divisions one Police Inspector, called the Circle Police Inspector, is attached. He is employed almost entirely on work relating to the detection and eradication of crime with the co-ordination of the police stations under him and investigation of important and organised crime.

One Police Inspector is attached to the office of the Superintendent of Police, who is designated as Home Police Inspector. He works as Personal Assistant to the Deputy Superintendent of Police and is employed for supervision of the work in the office and accounts branches, disposing of routine correspondence and miscellaneous work.

The Sub-Inspector of Police is ordinarily the officer in charge of a police station. He is responsible for the prevention and detection of crime in his charge and for seeing that orders and instructions issued by superior officers are carried out and the discipline of the police under him is properly maintained.

Head Constables are subject to the orders of the Sub-Inspector placed over them and of the superior officers of the police force. They are to report to the Sub-Inspector about all crimes committed in their beats, investigate less important cases and also to assist the Sub-Inspector in the investigation and detection of crime. When in charge of particular out-posts or beats of villages, the Head Constables act in all police matters in concern with the heads of the village police. When attached to the police station they hold charge in the absence of the Sub-Inspector and look to all routine work including investigation of crime.

The Constables perform such police duties as they are ordered by the Head Constables and other superior officers for the prevention and detection of crime, maintenance of law and order, apprehension of offenders, escorting and guarding of prisoners, patrolling beats, controlling traffic, etc.

Recruitment.

Appointments of Superintendents of Police are made by promotion of Assistant Superintendents of Police and Deputy Superintendents of Police in accordance with the regulations made in this behalf by the Central Government in consultation with the Public Service Commission. Appointments of Assistant Superintendents of Police are made by the Government of India

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Law, Order and Justice.

POLICE.

Recruitment.

on the recommendations of the Union Public Service Commission. Before being posted to regular duties they are trained at the Central Police Training College, Mount Abu and the State Government's Central Police Training School, Nasik. The appointments of the Deputy Superintendents of Police are made by the State Government, 70 per cent by promotion of meritorious officers from the lower ranks of the police force or in exceptional cases by the transfer of meritorious officers in the cadre of the Police Prosecutors and 30 per cent by direct recruitment from candidates recommended by the Maharashtra Public Service Commission. Direct recruits are, on recruitment, attached to the Police Training College, Nasik, normally for a period of one year. After completion of training, they are attached to districts to do the work of an Inspector for a period of two years before their confirmation.

Inspectors of Police are appointed by the Inspector-General of Police. Appointments are, as a rule, made by promotion of Sub-Inspectors, direct appointments being very rare.

Appointments of Head Constables are made by the Deputy Superintendent of Police ordinarily by promotion from among the Constables on the basis of seniority-*cum*-fitness and the Constables undergo a refreshers course and the direct appointments as Head Constables to the extent of 33⅓ per cent of the vacancies that may occur are also made by the Superintendent of Police with the sanction of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police of the Range. Police Constables possessing requisite qualifications are considered for appointment as Head Constables against the prescribed percentage and are given preference provided their record is clean and that they are fit in all respects.

Appointments of Constables are made by the Deputy Superintendent of Police. Men from the district are preferred as they are more likely to have local knowledge and could better understand the language and manner of life of the people. A fair number of men from the scheduled castes and tribes are now coming up for recruitment.

Armed and Unarmed Police.

When Amravati district became part of the bilingual State of Bombay on November 1, 1956, there was no division of the police force into Armed and Unarmed Police nor were the posts at headquarters graded. With a view to bringing about uniformity in the working of the police stations in the whole State, reorganisation of the police force in the districts of the Vidarbha region was taken up, and the strength of the police force in the region was augmented according to the prescribed "yard stick". Gradation of headquarters into three grades, *viz.*, I Grade, II Grade and III Grade was introduced. Thereafter, Armed and Unarmed Branches of the constabulary were formed.

To the Armed Police are mainly allotted the duties of guarding jails and lock-ups and providing escorts to prisoners and treasure. The Unarmed Police are employed for the prevention and detection of crime. Every recruit of the Armed as well as

Unarmed branch receives his basic training in musketry, drill, elementary law and police duties. The practical training conforms to the duties attached to the respective branches.

POLICE.
Literacy.

Of the total strength of 1,524 Head Constables and Police Constables, only 82 were illiterate. The percentage of illiterates to the actual strength was 5.31. Illiteracy was mainly confined to those ranks which were enrolled years ago.

Armament.

The armament of the District Police in 1960 consisted of 487 rifles, 67 revolvers of which 6 were of .455 bore and 61 of .38 bore. Besides these the Home Guards of the district are allotted 206 rifles (.303 bore) and 2 rifles (.22 bore). The armourer looks after the upkeep of the weapons.

There is a tear gas squad composed of 1 Police Sub-Inspector, 2 Head Constables and 8 Police Constables properly organised and trained. The equipment of the squad consists of 7 gas guns, 3 truncheon pistols, 26 grenade carriers and 16 shell carriers.

Motor Transport.

The district has a fleet of 13 vehicles, including 2 motor cycles, jeeps and light vans. One motor vehicle is always stationed at Achalpur for routine and emergency duties.

Wireless.

The district has two systems of police wireless communications. One is called the H. F. (High Frequency) system or long distance communication and has a net-work consisting of two static stations, one each at Amravati and Achalpur for inter-communication with the Range wireless station. The other system is called the V.H.F. (Very High Frequency) or short distance communication with its net-work consisting of one static station located in Kotwali Police Station.

Local Crime Branch and Local Intelligence Branch

There are a Local Crime Branch and a Local Intelligence Branch in the district, which work directly under the control of the Deputy Superintendent of Police. The primary function of the Local Crime Branch is to devote sustained attention and efforts to the investigation of important cases and those, in particular, in which the activities of professional criminals extend over more than one police station, and collection, collation and examination of information regarding crime and criminals in the district. A Modus Operandi Bureau is controlled by this branch. This branch is in charge of a Police Inspector. The Local Intelligence Branch, which is in charge of a Police Sub-Inspector, collects intelligence and makes enquiries about matters of political nature.

C. I. D. Unit.

One Police Sub-Inspector of the Intelligence Branch and one of the Service Selection Board belonging to the State Criminal Investigation Department Unit of Nagpur are posted at Amravati and they work under the general control of the Deputy Superintendent of Police, Criminal Investigation Department Unit, Nagpur.

Anti-Corruption Branch.

There is a Sub-Unit of the Anti-Corruption and Prohibition Intelligence Bureau at Amravati, which consists of the Police Sub-Inspector and his subordinates.

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Their main function pertains to eradicating the evil of corruption and bribery and more effective implementation of prohibition.

State Reserve.

A company of the State Reserve Police Force which has its Battalion headquarters at Kamptee, is stationed at Amravati.

Railway Police.

A length of 45 miles of Bombay-Nagpur Railway line passes through the district, Police Station, Badnera being on the main line. Amravati itself is connected by a 6-mile branch line. The railways fall within the jurisdiction of the Superintendent of Police, Central, South-East and Western Railways, with his headquarters at Nagpur.

Crime.

Crime, which has progressively decreased from 4,260 in 1956 to 2,364 in 1960 does not present a serious problem in the district. Of the specific charges, cases of house-breaking and theft were common and formed the bulk of the reported crime; murders, dacoities and robberies being infrequent. Sex crimes were reasonably low and did not feature as a problem. The Melghat plateau inhabited by aboriginals, however, is a peaceful area contributing but little to the general crime of the district.

Total crime for the years from 1956 to 1961 is given below:—

1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961 (till 30-6-61)
4,260	3,483	3,354	2,682	2,364	1,035

Crime under prohibition cases had been heavy in the beginning but declined gradually on account of the rigid enforcement of the Bombay Prohibition Act. The figures for the last five years and up to 30th June 1961 are given below. They include offences under the Gambling Act also:—

1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961 (till 30-6-61)
7,718	3,058	3,974	3,422	3,188	1,297

Prosecutions.

The police cases which are sent to the Court are scrutinised and conducted in Courts by Police Prosecutors who work under Senior Police Prosecutors.

Housing and Hospital.

Already a small proportion of all ranks was residing in rented accommodation as the increase in strength could not keep pace with the construction of quarters. The problem, however, became more acute when the strength was sharply increased after the reorganisation of States. Construction of additional quarters was taken up and at present Government quarters have been provided to 56 officers and 749 men. There is a Police Hospital at the Police Headquarters at Amravati, for the benefit of the police personnel and their families.

Welfare.

Prior to the reorganisations of States, the Police Welfare work was organised on a small-scale with the help of the Police

Welfare.

Benevolent Fund. The object was to give pecuniary aid to the indigent widows and to provide a few amenities to the policemen. After the reorganisation, a regular Police Welfare Fund was started through subscriptions and benefit performances. In the last five years a sum of Rs. 87,992 was collected from benefit performances. A number of welfare activities are started at the Police Headquarters, Amravati and also at many police stations. Various other facilities such as cheap grain, free medical aid, etc., are provided to the police personnel.

Village Police.

The District Police are helped in the performance of their watch and ward duties by the village Headman (Police *Patil*) who is appointed under the Land Revenue Act of the former Madhya Pradesh State. He is treated not as a subordinate but as a co-adjudicator of the police. The village watch and ward are the *Jaglyas* and *Kamdar Mahars*. The Police *Patil* is entrusted with the duties of informing the police of offences, accidental and suspicious deaths, movements of bad characters, advent of suspicious strangers and gangs, and other incidents in the village. In addition to this, the crop protection societies formed by the village panchayats are gaining in popularity and are doing appreciable work in the district.

JAIL DEPARTMENT

JAILS.

Organisation.

FOR THE PURPOSES OF PRISON ADMINISTRATION the State is divided into two divisions, *viz.*, Eastern and Western The Eastern Division is composed of the revenue divisions of Aurangabad and Nagpur, the Western Division of Bombay and Poona. The Inspector-General of Prisons, Maharashtra State. Poona. exercises general control and superintendence over all prisons and jails in the State subject to the orders of the State Government. The Superintendents of Nagpur Central Prison and the Yeravada Central Prison have been appointed as the ex-officio Deputy Inspectors-General of Prisons for the Eastern and the Western Divisions respectively. Some of the powers exercised by the Inspector-General of Prisons have been delegated to the Deputy Inspectors-General of Prisons. They are in immediate overall charge of the prisons in their respective divisions.

The Superintendent, Amravati District Prison, is vested with the executive management of the prison in all matters relating to internal discipline, economy, labour, punishment. etc subject to the orders and authority of the Regional Deputy Inspector General of Prisons, Nagpur and the Inspector-General of Prisons, Poona. He is assisted in his work by the necessary ministerial and field staff. The services of well-behaved convict overseers are utilised for doing patrolling duty outside the sleeping barracks but inside the jail at night time. The main wall and the outer yards are always manned for duty by the guarding staff.

CHAPTER 12.

Law, Order and Justice.

JAILS.

Location and Classification.

The prison at Amravati has been classified as a District Prison, Class I[1]. The prison is meant mainly for the confinement of the habitual prisoners from the Eastern Division and the local undertrial prisoners. The five magisterial lock-ups in the district are located at Achalpur, Chandur, Morshi, Daryapur and Chikhaldara. The administration of the magisterial lock-ups is governed under the rules contained in Chapter 33, Part VI of the Rules and Orders (Criminal) issued by the High Court of Judicature, Nagpur.

Accommodation and Expenditure.

The Amravati District Prison accommodates 638 prisoners. The daily average of the prisoners confined at the Amravati District Prison for 1963 was 446. During 1962 and 1963, 2,137 and 2,722 persons were admitted and 2,102 and 2,510 were released respectively. During 1963, the expenditure in respect of the Amravati District Prison was Rs. 2,09,155.

Recruitment.

The post of the Inspector-General of Prisons is filled in by appointment of an I.C.S. or an I.A.S. officer or by promotion from amongst those who are borne on the cadre of the Superintendent of Central Prisons (*i.e.*, including the holder of the post of the Deputy Inspector-General) or by transfer of a suitable officer in Maharashtra Medical Service, Class I, or by direct recruitment.

The Superintendents of Central Prisons are officers promoted from the ranks of Superintendents of District Prisons. The seniormost Superintendent of Central Prison is usually appointed to hold the post of Deputy Inspector-General in consultation with the Public Service Commission. The Superintendents of District Prisons are appointed both by direct recruitment or by promotion from amongst Jailors in Grade I in the proportion of 1:2. Jailors in Grade I are also appointed both by direct recruitment and by departmental promotion from amongst Jailors in Grade II in the proportion of 1:2. The candidates for direct recruitment to the post of Superintendent of a District Prison and/or Jailor, Grade I must hold a bachelor's degree with honours. They are recommended for appointment by the State Public Service Commission. A diploma in Sociology or Penology is considered to be an additional qualification Appointments to Jailors, Grade II are made by the Inspector-General by promotion of Jailors in Grade III. Appointments to Jailors. Grade III are also made by the Inspector-General. However, 50 per cent of the posts are open to outside candidates who must necessarily be graduates, while the remaining posts are filled in by promotion of suitable departmental candidates who have passed the S.S.C. or its equivalent examination. The candidates for appointment to the posts of Jailor, Grade III. are interviewed by a Selection Board consisting of the Inspector-General and two Superintendents of Prisons who are nominated by Government. The posts of sepoys are filled in by direct recruitment and the higher posts from the guarding establishment are generally filled in by promotion according to seniority.

[1] Government Home Department, Notification No. R. J. m. 1058 (i)-IV, dated the 26th April 1962.

JAILS.

Recruitment.

But if suitable persons according to the seniority are not available, appointments to the posts in higher grade are made by selection from amongst the members of the next lower rank or by nomination of candidates with some high academic qualifications fixed for similar posts.

Appointment to the posts of Junior Clerks are made by nomination from amongst candidates who must have passed the S.S.C. Examination or its equivalent. Appointments to the ministerial posts in higher grade are made by promotion generally according to seniority from amongst the members of the next lower rank. Medical Officers are drafted for services in Jail Department for a period of two years from the Medical Department.

Training

The Jail Officers' Training School established at Poona in 1955 imparts practical as well as theoretical training to prison officers (Superintendents of Prisons, Jailors, Grade I and II) on various subjects relating to correctional administration and prison management. Training facilities are also provided for guards and non-commissioned officers.

Medical Staff.

A full-time Medical Officer on deputation from the Medical Department looks after the hospital at the Amravati District Prison.

Classification of Prisoners.

Prisoners are classified as Class I or Class II by the Court after taking into consideration their status in society and also the nature of the offence. They are further classified as casual, habitual, undertrial and security or detenue. There is no separate class of political prisoners but certain rules which do not allow the grant of facilities and privileges on the score of length of sentence are relaxed in their favour under the specific orders of Government. Prisoners are also grouped as "short-termers, medium-termers and long-termers'. Prisoners with a sentence up to three months are classed as short-termers, those sentenced up to a period of three months and above but up to two years are classified as medium-termers and those sentenced up to two years and above are classified as long-termers. Headquarters sub-jails are meant for the confinement of short-term prisoners and undertrial prisoners only.

Work.

On admission, a prisoner is examined by the Medical Officer and is classified as fit for light, medium or hard labour. Aptitude and past experience are also considered before alloting the work.

Prisoners are engaged in handloom weaving, pitloom weaving, laundry work, carpentry, tailoring and smithy at the Amravati District Prison. The production in these industries was valued at Rs. 1,11,683 in 1962 and Rs. 2,29,065 in 1963.

About fifty prisoners who work daily on the prison farms cultivate about 44 acres of land.

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Medium-term and long-term prisoners so also security and undertrial prisoners who volunteer to work are paid as per the prison rules. They are generally paid 1/5th of the wages which are normally paid for similar work outside, provided they complete their daily quota.

Release on Parole and Furlough.

A prisoner is released on parole by the Divisional Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur, in the event of serious illness or death of any member of the family or nearest relative of the prisoner or any other cause deemed sufficient. The period spent on parole is not counted as part of the sentence. A prisoner who is sentenced to more than a year and up to five years and who has actually undergone one year's imprisonment is eligible for release on furlough for a period of two weeks. A prisoner sentenced to more than five years is eligible for release on furlough on completion of two years of actual imprisonment. The period spent on parole counts as part of the sentence.

Remission of Sentence.

The prisoners are granted remissions on various grounds such as ordinary, annual good conduct, special, state, blood donation, conservancy work and physical training. State remission is awarded by the Government on occasions of public rejoicing.

Board of Visitors.

A Board of Visitors composing of official and non-official visitors is appointed for every headquarter sub-jail and taluka sub-jails. There are ordinarily four non-official visitors for the headquarter sub-jail out of which two are members of the Maharashtra Legislature and two are nominated by Government of whom one is a lady visitor. The appointment of non-official visitors other than members of the Maharashtra Legislature is made for a period, not exceeding three years. Persons who in the opinion of Government are interested in prison administration and are likely to take interest in the welfare of prisoners both while they are in prison and after their release are nominated by Government on the Board of Visitors on the recommendation of the District Magistrate concerned and Inspector-General of Prisons. The Chairman of the Board of Visitors who is usually the District Magistrate arranges for a weekly visit to the prison by one of the members of the Board Quarterly meetings of the Board are also convened. Non-official visitors are also allowed to visit the prison on any day and at any time during the day in addition to the weekly visit arranged by the Chairman The Board records in the visitor's book its observations after the detailed inspection of the jails Any remark at the quarterly meeting or at the weekly visits deserving special and prompt disposal is immediately forwarded by the Superintendent to the Inspector-General for necessary orders with such remarks as the former may desire to offer.

In bigger jails a committee of prisoners is selected for each year by the prisoners themselves, and the Jailor and the Superintendent consult the committee which is known as "Jail Panchayat Committee" in matters of discipline and general welfare of prisoners.

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Board of Visitors.

With a view to providing training in co-operation and disciplined way of life and in cultivating a sense of responsibility and self-reliance among the inmates, a panchayat of convicted prisoners has been organised at the Amravati District Prison.

The cases of long-term prisoners are initially reviewed by the Advisory Board. Prisoners deserving concession are released prematurely under the orders of Government.

Education.

Literacy classes are conducted for the prisoners under the supervision of paid teachers assisted by convict teachers. Necessary facilities are also provided for those desirous of prosecuting higher studies.

Recreational and cultural activities and other facilities.

The Amravati Zilla Parishad arranges an exhibition of documentary and full length feature films for the benefit of the prisoners once in a month. Newspapers are also supplied to the prisoners. They are allowed to retain two books of religious nature and ten books of non-religious nature. Musical programmes and other cultural programmes are also arranged for their benefit.

Directorate of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration Wing and Non-Correctional Wing)

Directorate of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration Wing and Non-Correctional Wing.)

The Department of Social Welfare was formed in 1957 after amalgamating offices of the Director of Backward Class Welfare and the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools.

Organisation.

At the State level, it is controlled by the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare. The office of the Directorate of Social Welfare has been divided into two wings, one dealing with backward class welfare and the other dealing with correctional work and the work relating to the welfare of women under the social and moral hygiene programme and of the physically handicapped. In the Correctional Wing, the Director of Social Welfare is assisted by the Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Administration) who is also *ex-officio* Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Chief Inspector of Certified Institutions. There are three Assistant Directors of Social Welfare each in charge of children's work, beggars' work and plan work, respectively. There is also a small unit of inspectorate staff working under the Chief Inspector.

At the divisional level the department has regional officers called Divisional Social Welfare Officers each posted at the headquarters of the revenue division. They are entrusted with administrative and supervisory work relating to all the subjects handled by the Directorate of Social Welfare. For correctional and allied work they have been given the assistance of an Inspector of Certified Schools. Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, their services have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

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DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

Organisation.

At the district level, the Correctional Wing has no elaborate administrative machinery save superintendents of the institution posted in the districts wherever there are institutions. The District Social Welfare Officer is primarily responsible for welfare of backward classes.

The Correctional Administration Wing is responsible for the implementation of the Bombay Children Act, 1948, applicable to Western Maharashtra for the present, the Hyderabad Children Act, 1951, applicable to the districts of Marathwada region and the Central Provinces Children Act, 1928, applicable to the Vidarbha region.

Broadly speaking, all these Acts provide for the protection of destitute, neglected and victimised children below the age of 16 and seek reformation of delinquent children through training provided in remand homes and certified schools.

Children Act.

The Bombay Prevention of Begging Act, 1959, deals with the problem of elimination of beggary. It is however not applicable throughout the State. The Bombay Probation of Offenders Act, 1938, provides for the probation of offenders in lieu of jail punishment in suitable cases recommended by the probation officers appointed by this department under the Act. Its jurisdiction extends over the districts of Western Maharashtra only. The Central Provinces and Berar Probation of Offenders Act, 1936, is applicable to the eight districts of Vidarbha region. The Bombay Habitual Offenders Restriction Act, 1959, is applicable to Western Maharashtra only and deals with the prevention of crime and treatment of offenders. Such habitual offenders are sent to Industrial and Agricultural Settlements for their rehabilitation in appropriate cases. *The Bombay Borstal Schools Act, 1929*, is applicable to Western Maharashtra and deals with offenders between the ages of 16 and 21 and committed to the Borstal School, Dharwar. *The Reformatory Schools Act, 1897*, is in operation in the districts of Vidarbha region. The provisions of the *Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, 1956*, are, implemented by the Police Department. However the Department of Social Welfare is responsible for starting the protective homes and supervising the administration of these Homes provided for in the Act. For this purpose the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools is the Chief Inspector of the Protective Homes. The Women's and Children's Institutions Licensing Act, 1956, is an all-India legislation provided for the licensing of institutions opened by voluntary agencies for the benefit of women and children. For the inspection and supervision of such institutions a special officer, a Woman Inspector is appointed, while the Director of Social Welfare works as licensing authority.

After-care Programme.

Besides these social legislations with which this department is actively concerned, the Directorate of Social Welfare has undertaken the following after-care programmes pertaining to the welfare of children and women.

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DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

The Maharashtra State Probation and After-Care Association is a federal body devoted to the care and after-care programmes relating to children. Wherever the Bombay Children Act has been applied, remand homes are sponsored by the District Probation and After-Care Associations which are affiliated to this body. In the after-care field the Association maintains after-care hostels for boys and girls released from certified schools.

Social and Moral Hygiene Programme.

The object of the social and moral hygiene programmes sponsored by the Central Social Welfare Board is to take care of women's welfare. It envisages the opening of Reception Centres and State Homes for women and District Shelters and State Homes for men, either released from the correctional institutions or seeking shelter on reference. The Reception Centres and two State Homes have been functioning in the State of Maharashtra for girls and women in moral danger, destitute or deserted women or women released from institutions. Four District Shelters and one State Home admit men released from correctional institutions or needing shelter and help.

The department is also in charge of work relating to the education and rehabilitation of the physically handicapped. At the headquarters, the work is organised by an officer designated as the Special Officer for the rehabilitation of the physically handicapped. The department runs schools for the various categories of the handicapped and also Shelter Workshops for their sake as well as a Home for crippled children for their treatment and education. It also aids voluntary agencies doing work in this field.

The department also accords grants to dance, drama and music institutions and also to other social welfare institutions such as Rescue Homes, Mahila Mandals, Akhadas, Kustigir Parishads, Bharat Sevak Samaj, etc. As a preventive measure, Juvenile Guidance Centres have been organised in localities which are the breeding places of delinquency. In order to promote proper community living among the youth, youth clubs have been organised. The Central Provinces and Berar Children Act, 1928 (C P. and Berar Act. No. X of 1928), excepting Section 3 thereof, which is in operation in Amravati district has been applied to the municipal limits of Amravati Town, to the premises of the Jagadamba-Kushta Niwas, Tapowan, Amravati, limits of Badnera Town and to the Railway Station area of the Badnera Junction of the Central Railway, with effect from 1st October 1960.

Remand Home.

A Remand Home has been sanctioned for the reception of children coming under the purview of the Central Provinces and Berar Children Act, under the management of the District Probation and After-Care Association, Amravati, and for the payment of 100% grant-in-aid on account of the expenditure thereof both recurring and non-recurring for a period of one year in the first instance.

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DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL WELFARE (CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION WING AND NON-CORRECTIONAL WING).

A Remand Home with an accommodating capacity for 35 boys was established at Badnera in 1961. On the 15th of October 1961, there were 32 boys in the Remand Home.

Grants-in-aid.

Besides the abovementioned statutory provisions, there are two schemes administered by this department in the district. The department gives grant-in-aid to social welfare institutions and physical welfare institutions. The following institutions received grants-in-aid from the department during 1960-61:—

	Rs.
(a) Bal Shikshana Mandal, Amravati	700
(b) Bharuka Maternity Home, Chandur	600
(c) Prabodhan Gita Mandal, Daryapur	400
(d) Saraswati Bhagini Mandal, Warud	600
(e) Kasturba Gram Seva and Arogya Kendra Manikpur, Taluka Morshi	550
(f) Kasturba Arogya Mandir, Madhan, taluka Achalpur	1,600
(g) Maternity Home and Child Welfare Centre, Paratwada ..	700
(h) Kasturba Gram Seva Arogya Adivasi Seva Kendra, Gondwadi	600
(i) R. G. Mote Maternity Home, Amravati	500
(j) Sarvodaya Mandal, Karajgaon, taluka Morshi	1,000

Grants to Physical Welfare Institutions, Vidarbha (1960-61)

(a) Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amravati	1,600
(b) Vijay Mandal, Amravati	750

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

District Judge.

The higest judicial authority in the district is the District Judge, Amravati. He presides over the District Court. Articles 233, 234 and 235 of the Constitution of India define the powers of the Judicial Department at the district level. Under Article 233, appointments, postings and promotions of District Judges[1] are made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court. Under Article 234, appointments of persons other than District Judges to the judicial service[2] are made by the Governor in accordance with rules made by him after consultation with the State Public Service Commission and with the High Court. And finally, under Article 235, the control over the District Court and the Courts subordinate to it, including the posting and promotion of, and the grant of leave to, persons belonging to the judicial service and holding any post inferior to the post of District Judge, is vested in the High Court.

Civil Courts.

The District Court is the principal Court of original jurisdiction in the district, and it is also a Court of appeal from all decrees and orders up to the value of Rs. 10,000 passed by the subordinate Courts from which an appeal can be preferred. The District

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[1]. Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, the term "District Judge" includes Additional District Judge, Assistant District Judge, Chief Judge of a Small Causes Court, Sessions Judge, Additional Sessions Judge and Assistant Sessions Judge.

[2]. Under Article 236 of the Constitution of India, "judicial service" is described as service consisting exclusively of persons intended to fill the post of a District Judge and other civil Judicial posts inferior to the post of a District Judge.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

Civil Courts.

Judge exercises general control over all the Civil Courts and their establishments and inspects the proceedings of these Courts.

On the introduction of the new judicial set-up in the Vidarbha region from April 1, 1959, two additional Courts, one presided over by an Assistant Judge and the other by an Extra-Assistant Judge are working along with the Court of the District Judge at Amravati. These Judges exercise both original and appellate jurisdiction. They try such original suits and appeals as are transferred to them by the District Judge for disposal.

Subordinate to the District Judge are two cadres of Civil Judges: Junior Division and Senior Division. The jurisdiction of a Civil Judge (Junior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature wherein the subject matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value, while that of a Civil Judge (Senior Division) extends to all original suits and proceedings of a civil nature irrespective of the value of the subject matter. Appeals in suits or proceedings wherein the subject matter does not exceed Rs. 10,000 in value are taken to the District Court, while in those wherein the subject matter exceeds Rs. 10,000 in value are taken direct to the High Court.

There is one Court of Civil Judge (Senior Division) and 6 Courts of Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division) at Amravati. Besides Amravati, there are four Courts at Achalpur, one of the Civil Judge, Senior Division and three of Civil Judges, Junior Division; two Courts at Daryapur: one of Civil Judge, Senior Division and one of Civil Judge, Junior Division; two Courts of Civil Judges, Junior Division, at Morshi and one Court of Civil Judge, Junior Division, at Chandur. Courts of Civil Judges, Senior Division, at Achalpur and Daryapur are linked and are presided over by one Civil Judge, Senior Division All the Civil Judges, Junior Division, including four Civil Judges, Junior Division, at Amravati attend to the criminal work.

Criminal Courts.

The District Judge, Amravati, is also the Sessions Judge of the District. The Sessions Judge tries criminal cases which are committed to his Court by the Judicial Magistrates after preliminary enquiry, and, as a Special Judge under the provisions of the various Acts, deals with prevention of corruption. The Sessions Judge also hears appeals against the decisions of the subordinate Magistrates.

The Assistant Judge and the Extra-Assistant Judge also exercise the powers on the criminal side and generally they are invested with powers of an Additional Sessions Judge. The Sessions Judge and Additional Sessions Judge may pass any sentence authorised by law, but any sentence of death passed by any such Judge is subject to confirmation by the High Court.

The Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions Act (XXIII of 1951) read with Bombay Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions (Extension) and the Code of Criminal

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JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

Criminal Courts.

Procedure (Provision for Uniformity) Act, 1958 (XCVII of 1958), has classified the magistracy of the State into two categories, *viz.*, (1) Judicial Magistrates and (2) Executive Magistrates. Judicial Magistrates are of the following classes: (1) Presidency Magistrates; (2) Magistrates of the First Class; (3) Magistrates of the Second Class; (4) Magistrates of the Third Class and (5) Special Judicial Magistrates. But on the separation of the judicial functions from the executive ones in the Vidarbha region from September 1, 1959, only the Courts of Judicial Magistrates, First Class, were established in the district to try all cases. The Executive Magistrates fall under the following classes: (1) District Magistrates. (2) Sub-Divisional Magistrates; (3) Taluka Magistrates; (4) Presidency Magistrates specially empowered by the State Government and (5) Special Executive Magistrates. The State Government may in consultation with the High Court, direct any two or more Judicial Magistrates in any place outside Greater Bombay to sit together as a bench and invest such bench with the powers of a Magistrate of the First, Second or Third Class.

The Presidency Magistrates work in Greater Bombay. The Special Judicial Magistrates are appointed by the State Government in consultation with the High Court to try particular cases or classes of cases or cases generally in any local area. Special Executive Magistrates are appointed by the State Government for particular areas, or for the performance of particular functions.

All Judicial Magistrates are subordinate to the Sessions Judge who may from time to time make rules or give special orders as to the distribution of work among them.

All Executive Magistrates are subordinate to the District Magistrate. Their powers and functions are detailed in paragraphs II-A, IV and V of Schedule III of the Criminal Procedure Code. Appeals from orders requiring security for keeping peace or for good behaviour, however, lie from Executive Magistrates to the Court of Sessions (Section 406, Criminal Procedure Code). The State Government has power by notification to direct that appeals from such orders made by a Magistrate other than the District Magistrate shall lie to the District Magistrate and not to the Court of Sessions. Again, under Section 406-A of the Code, any person aggrieved by an order of refusal to accept or reject a surety under Section 122 may appeal against such order, if made by a District Magistrate, to the Court of Sessions under Section 435 (4). The High Court is empowered to call for and examine the record of any proceeding under Sections 143 (prohibition of repetition of nuisance), 144 (temporary order in urgent cases of nuisance or apprehended danger to public peace) and 145 (procedure where dispute as to immoveable property is likely to cause breach of peace), even though such proceeding was before an Executive Magistrate.

The ordinary powers of the Magistrates of the Third, Second and First Class are detailed in Schedule III, Parts I, II and

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III, respectively, of the Criminal Procedure Code (Act V of 1898). They may be invested with additional powers by the State Government in consultation with the High Court. These additional powers are detailed in Schedule IV of the Code. These Magistrates are competent to pass the following sentences:—

(a) Magistrates of the First Class ..	(1) Imprisonment for term not exceeding 2 years including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law,
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 1,000, and
	(3) Whipping.
(b) Magistrates of the Second Class ..	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding 6 months, including such solitary confinement as is authorised by law, and
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 200.
(c) Magistrates of the Third Class ..	(1) Imprisonment for a term not exceeding one month, and
	(2) Fine not exceeding Rs. 50.

There are six Judicial Magistrates and 10 Civil Judges (Junior Division) and Judicial Magistrates, First Class, attending to the criminal work in Amravati district.

There are five Courts of Judicial Magistrates, First Class, and three Courts of Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division), and Judicial Magistrates, First Class, at Amravati. Besides Amravati, there are also one Court of Judicial Magistrate and three Courts of Joint Civil Judges (Junior Division), and Judicial Magistrates, First Class at Achalpur, one Court of Joint Civil Judge, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrate, First Class at Daryapur. one Court of Civil Judge, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrate, First Class at Chandur and two Courts at Morshi, one of Civil Judge, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrate, First Class and another of Joint Civil Judge, Junior Division and Judicial Magistrate, First Class.

The Judicial Magistrate at Achalpur sits at Dharni and Chikhaldara for four days in every alternate week in the month and tries cases from Melghat tahsil.

Other Law Officers.

The Public Prosecutor and the Additional Public Prosecutor and the other Law Officers of Government are functioning in Amravati district. In December 1960, there were 13 advocates and 232 pleaders practising in the various Civil Courts in the district.

Legal Practitioners.

Nyaya Panchayats.

Under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act (No. 3 of 1959), Nyaya Panchayats have been formed in a number of villages. They are empowered to try petty civil suits and criminal cases. The constitution and powers of the Nyaya Panchayats are detailed in Chapter VI, Sections 63 to 89. of the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1959. An appeal lies to the District Court against a decree passed by a Nyaya Panchayat in any suit and to the Sessions Court against any order in any case.

Statistics of Civil Courts.

In Amravati district, in the various Civil Courts, 2,366 suits were pending at the end of the year 1959. In 1960, 3,723 suits were instituted and 4,976 suits were disposed of. 2,057 suits

CHAPTER 12. Law, Order and Justice. JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT. Statistics of Civil Courts.

were pending at the end of the year. Of the 3,723 suits instituted, 2,809 involved monetary transactions or moveable property. Of these 1,114 were of value not exceeding Rs. 100; 2,184 were of value above Rs. 100 but not exceeding Rs. 1,000; 295 were of value above Rs. 1,000 but not exceeding Rs. 5,000; 38 of value above Rs. 5,000 and 92 were of value which could not be estimated. The total value of the suits instituted was Rs. 24,88,045.

Out of the 4,976 suits disposed of, 366 were disposed of without trial; 660 *ex parte*; 430 on admission of claim; 944 by compromise; 1,735 after full trial; 839 by transfer and 2 by reference to arbitration.

There were 273 appeals (including Miscellaneous Appeals), pending at the end of the year 1959. During the year 1960, 397 appeals were instituted, 499 were disposed of and 246 were pending at the end of the year.

Of the 499 appeals disposed of during the year 1960, 75 were either dismissed or not prosecuted; 202 confirmed; 41 modified; 90 reversed; 15 remanded for re-trial and 76 disposed of by transfer from one Court to another.

Statistics of Criminal Courts.

In the year 1960, there were 22,233 offences reported in the Criminal Courts of the district. Persons under trial numbered 59,970; persons whose cases were disposed of, 43,343; persons discharged or acquitted, 14,154; persons convicted, 29,189; persons committed to Sessions Court, 30 and persons died or escaped or transferred to another State 13. Of the convicted persons, 1,257 were imprisoned, 27,569 sentenced to pay fine, 198 released on admonition and 165 were asked to give security.

Statistics of Sessions Court.

During the year 1960, in the Sessions Court, 36 offences were reported and 99 persons were under trial. Cases of 83 persons were disposed of during the year of whom 29 persons were acquitted or discharged and 54 persons were convicted. Out of those convicted, 1 person was awarded death sentence, 16 transportation for life, 4 sentenced to pay fine and 33 to imprisonment.

Revenue and Expenditure.

The revenue of the Judicial Department in Amravati district for the year 1960-61, amounted to Rs. 1,29,593.00 as against the expenditure of Rs. 4,83,574.55.

Bar Associations.

There are five bar associations, one each at Amravati, Achalpur, Chandur, Daryapur and Morshi The years of their establishment and membership are given below:—

Bar Association	Year of Establishment	Membership
Amravati	1894	148
Achalpur	1892	38
Chandur	1914	9
Daryapur	1910	25
Morshi	Prior to 1900	15

They are established with a view to promoting contacts among the members of the legal profession and for safeguarding the honour and status of the profession.

CHAPTER 13 — OTHER DEPARTMENTS

Buildings and Communications Department

BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS. Electrical Branch.

THERE ARE TWO SEPARATE BRANCHES, *viz.*, the Electrical and Roads and Buildings under the Buildings and Communications Department in Amravati district.

The Electrical Engineer is responsible for the supply of electricity to certain towns and a few villages in Amravati district. The work of electric installations in Government buildings is carried out by the Sub-divisional Officer, Amravati Electric Sub-division, Amravati. The same officer is designated as Assistant Electrical Inspector and in that capacity carries out inspections of the M. P. & H. T. electric installations according to the provisions of the Indian Electricity Act, 1910 and the rules made thereunder.

The Buildings and Communications department deals with roads and buildings, irrigation, electricity and Public Health Works.

Roads and Buildings.

Amravati Division is in charge of an Executive Engineer who is subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, Amravati Circle, Amravati. The Amravati Division is composed of five sub-divisions, *viz.*

(1) Amravati Sub Division No. I. Permanent.

(2) Amravati Sub-Division No. II, Temporary.

(3) Achalpur Sub-Division, Permanent.

(4) Morshi Sub-Division, Permanent.

(5) Daryapur Sub-Division. Permanent.

At the State level the department is headed by the Secretary to Buildings and Communications department who is the administrative head of the department.

Superintending Engineer.

The Superintending Engineer is responsible for the administration and general professional control of public works within his Circle. He inspects the state of various works within his Circle and sees that they are efficiently executed. He also examines the condition of the survey and mathematical instruments at the headquarters of divisions. In the case of Office and Petty establishment borne on Divisional level, he has to see that these scales are not exceeded without proper authority.

CHAPTER 13. — Other Departments. BUILDINGS AND COMMUNICATIONS. Roads and Buildings. *Superintending Engineer.*

The Superintending Engineers are empowered to transfer and post Deputy Engineers and Overseers within their Circle, in the interest of administration. However, Executive Engineers of Divisions are consulted before posting these officers to particular Sub-divisional charges under their control. The supervision and control of assessment of revenue from Irrigation Works within his Circle rest with the Superintending Engineer. The Superintending Engineer is authorised to correspond direct with any local authority, civil or military, within his Circle.

Executive Engineer.

The Executive Engineer is responsible to Superintending Engineer of his Circle for the execution and management of all works within his division. He is also the *ex officio* professional adviser to all the departments of the State within the limits of his charge.

Sub-divisional Officer.

The Sub-divisional officers are responsible to Executive Engineer in charge of the division for the management and execution of works within their Sub-division. The Overseers are in charge of the Section under Sub-divisional officers.

The total length of roads in the district as on 31st March 1961 under different categories was 1,065.40 km. (662.37 miles). Of these 518.22 km. (322.16 miles) were under the State sector and the remaining under the district sector. To these were added three divisions from Yeotmal district.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, a dual control is exercised over the department. It is partly under the State sector and partly under the District sector. The Parishad Executive Engineer is the head of the department in the District Sector. All the roads excepting National Highways and State Highways have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad.

IRRIGATION AND POWER DEPARTMENT

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

At the Secretariat level, the Irrigation and Power Department is headed by the Secretary to Government who is the administrative head of the department. He is assisted by two Chief Engineers, one in charge of major and medium irrigation and hydro-electric projects and drainage works and the other in charge of minor irrigation projects, public health (water-supply) and drainage schemes in the State sector.

Organisation.

The set up of Irrigation and Power Department in the State is as under:—

Secretary (Administrative Head)

Chief Engineer (Head of Department) (In charge of major and medium irrigation projects and hydro-electric projects and drainage works).	Chief Engineer (Head of Department) (In charge of minor irrigation projects under state sector and public health, i.e., water-supply schemes under state sector).

Superintending Engineer in charge of Circle, normally consisting of 4 to 5 divisions.

Executive Engineer in charge of divisions, normally consisting of 4 to 5 sub-divisions.

Sub-Divisional Officer in charge of sub-division, normally consisting of 4 to 5 sections.

Overseers in charge of sections.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Functions.

The activities of Irrigation and Power department mainly relate to the (i) management of completed irrigation schemes, (ii) execution of major and medium irrigation and hydro-electric projects and ancillary activities such as surveys and investigation, preparation of master plan work of designs, plans and estimates of major projects centralised in Central Designs Organisation, (iii) minor irrigation and (iv) Public Health (water-supply and drainage) schemes.

The Chief Engineer is in charge of execution and overall technical control of various works under construction or contemplated throughout the State. The Superintending Engineers of Circles are responsible to the Chief Engineer for the execution, supervision and management of all activities of Irrigation and Power department under their Circles. The Executive Engineers are responsible to the Superintending Engineers, the Sub-divisional Officers to the Executive Engineers and Overseers to the Sub-divisional Officers for the execution, supervision and management of activities of Irrigation and Power department in their divisions, Sub-divisions and sections, respectively.

Executive Engineer.

The Executive Engineer, Public Health Works Division, Amravati, is entrusted with the execution of public health engineering, water-supply and drainage schemes and the Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, Nagpur, with the preparation of major public health schemes in the district. The maintenance of Amravati waterworks (municipal deposit works) and the Holiday Camp water-supply scheme at Chikhaldara (Government Scheme) are looked after by the Deputy Engineer, Amravati Water-Supply Sub-Division, Amravati. In addition, he is responsible for the execution of Daryapur Water-supply (municipal deposit work) Scheme. Besides the schemes of water-supply arrangements to Government Polytechnic. Amravati, drainage arrangements to Government Polytechnic, Amravati, are under preparation and are likely to be taken for execution on behalf of the Buildings and Communications Department. These schemes would be executed by Amravati Water-supply Sub-division, Amravati.

The Regional Rural Piped Water-supply Scheme for about 270 villages in the saline tract of Amravati district is under preparation with the Sub-divisional Officer, Public Health Project Sub-division, Amravati, under the Public Health Project Division, Nagpur. The whole area in the district would be covered by three or four sub-schemes having independent source of water-supply depending upon special features in the respective areas. The survey and preparation of detailed plan and estimates are under progress with the Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, Nagpur.

The Executive Engineer, Public Health Works Division, Amravati and Executive Engineer, Public Health Project Division, Nagpur are under the Superintending Engineer, Eastern Public Health Circle, Nagpur. The Superintending Engineer is responsible to the Chief Engineer, Minor Irrigation and Public Health, Irrigation and Power Department.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Executive Engineer.

As regards irrigation works, there is one irrigation division at Amravati under the overall charge of the Superintending Engineer, Akola Irrigation Circle with headquarters at Amravati. The Superintending Engineer is responsible to the Chief Engineer in the Irrigation and Power Department for irrigation works in the Amravati district. The Executive Engineer, Amravati has under him six sub-divisions for surveys and construction of minor irrigation works and surveys for major and medium irrigation projects included in the Third Five-Year Plan.

The Sub-divisions dealing with works in the Amravati district are as under:—

1. Irrigation Survey Sub-division, Amravati.
2. Irrigation Survey Sub-division, Morshi.
3. Irrigation Survey Sub-division, Achalpur.

Works and Activities.

Water-Supply and Drainage Schemes.

The main functions of the Public Health Engineering Wing of the department are as under:—

(1) Preparation and execution of Government and Municipal water-supply schemes,

(2) supervision of water-supply and drainage schemes executed by local bodies.

(3) giving advice, so far as water-supply and drainage problems are concerned, to other Government departments in connection with schemes sponsored by them,

(4) maintaining a large number of waterworks in the State either owned by Government or by local bodies, the latter of which are entrusted to Government for running at the cost of local bodies.

This wing also deals with other public health engineering problems arising in the State and co-operates with the Public Health department in matters involving public health engineering.

Amravati is the only town in the district provided with piped water-supply. This waterworks is maintained by the department on behalf of and at the cost of the Municipal Committee, Amravati.

No town or village in the district is provided with underground drainage.

At present, only one major scheme, *viz.*, Daryapur Water-Supply Scheme (municipal deposit work) estimated to cost Rs. 8,536.16 is under execution of this department.

Transfer of Functions to Zilla Parishad.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad, Amravati, matters relating to rural health are transferred to it. Accordingly, the Kaundinyapur Fair Water-supply Scheme as drawn up by Irrigation and Power department has been transferred for implementation to the Zilla Parishad, Amravati. Future

planning and execution of all water-supply and drainage schemes in the rural areas not costing more than Rs. 5 lakhs in each case, would come within the jurisdiction of the Zilla Parishad.

Irrigation Survey Sub-Division, Amravati.

This Sub-division looks after the survey works in Amravati and Daryapur tahsils. During the year 1961-62, five schemes were surveyed of which plans and estimates for four works were finalised. In these two tahsils, no irrigation work exists.

Irrigation Survey Sub-Division, Achalpur.

This Sub-division looks after the surveys and construction of minor irrigation works in Achalpur and Melghat tahsils and surveys for the Shahanoor River Project, the Medium irrigation project included in the Third Five-Year Plan. In 1961-62, surveys for two minor irrigation works were completed and plans and estimates for two minor irrigation works with an irrigation potential of 300 acres were submitted to Government for sanction. Construction of two *bandharas* with an irrigation potential of 400 acres was in progress and both the works were in the final stages of completion. As far as irrigation and management is concerned, only one work, *viz.*, Pakhal Nalla (anicut) is in operation This anicut (*bandhara*) is about 4 miles from Achalpur on Achalpur-Akot road. The work was completed in the year 1952-53 at a cost of Rs. 0.24 lakh. It irrigates an area of 377 acres. The area irrigated by this *bandhara* is as under (Year-wise):—

Year		*Acres*
1956-57	..	17
1957-58	...	44
1958-59	..	53
1959-60	..	81
1960-61	...	106
1961-62	...	22

Survey Sub-Division, Morshi.

This Sub-division is responsible for surveys and construction of minor irrigation works in Morshi and Chandur tahsils of the district. During 1961-62, surveys for all irrigation works were completed and plans and estimates for three works with an irrigation potential of 635 acres were finalised and submitted to Government. Construction of Kamlapur Bandhara with irrigation potential of 90 acres was in progress.

In Morshi tahsil, Pat Nalla (anicut), Pak Nalla and Dabheri Tank are the three irrigation works that have been completed.

Pat Nalla.

Pat Nalla is situated about seven miles from the Morshi Town and is near Bhivakundi village. It was constructed in 1954-55 at a cost of Rs. 0.22 lakh. The area irrigated from 1955-56 to 1960-61 year-wise is as under:—

Year		*Acres*
1956-57	...	110
1957-58	.	108
1958-59	...	65
1959-60	...	93
1960-61	...	46

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

IRRIGATION AND POWER.

Irrigation Schemes.

Pak Nalla.

Pak Nalla is situated about eight miles from the Morshi town near Hiwarkhed village. The work was completed in 1956-57 at a total cost of Rs. 0.41 lakh. The irrigable area under this near Hiwarkhed village. The work was completed in 1956-57 when the *bandhara* was put into commission is as below:—

Year		*Acres*
1956-57	...	165
1957-58	...	321
1958-59	...	289
1959-60	...	193
1960-61	...	132
1961-62	...	115

Dabheri Tank.

Dabheri Tank, a storage tank, is situated near village Dabheri in Morshi tahsil. The tank is reported to be 700 years old. A canal system was provided in the year 1951-52. The irrigable area is 266 acres. It was put into commission in 1952-53. The acreage irrigated from 1956-57 is as under:—

Year		*Acres*
1956-57	...	3
1957-58	...	22
1958-59	...	12
1959-60	..	26
1960-61	...	22
1961-62	...	19

Utilisation.

It would be seen from the above figures that the available potential is not fully utilised. The matter has been investigated and it is found that the main reasons for the non-utilisation of the irrigation potential are as under:—

(1) Cultivators are not irrigation minded,

(2) they are afraid that the sub-soil water level on the d/s. of the tank may go down if and when the water level in the reservoir would go down,

(3) general fertility of land, and

(4) apathy of the cultivators towards the irrigation facility provided.

According to the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, Amravati Zilla Parishad was formed in May 1962 and Morshi Irrigation Sub-division was transferred en block to Zilla Parishad, Amravati. All works, from the Amravati district, irrigating less than 250 acres now stand transferred to the Amravati Zilla Parishad.

In the Amravati district, so far, no major or medium irrigation projects have been undertaken.

Other Departments.

AGRICULTURE.

Organisation.

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT

The activities pertaining to Agriculture in the district are under dual control of the State Government and the Zilla Parishad, respectively. The activities regarding plant protection scheme, cotton extension scheme, integrated oil-seed development scheme, mechanical cultivation scheme and blasting and boring scheme and seed multiplication farm scheme are entrusted to the department of Agriculture in the State sector. All other works are looked after by the Zilla Parishad and are thus in the district sector.

The department at the State level is headed by the Secretary of the Agriculture and Forest department who is the administrative head of the department. At the Directorate level it is headed by the Director of Agriculture with his headquarters at Poona. He is assisted by four Joint Directors each in charge of establishment, extension, agricultural engineering and agricultural research and education, respectively.

Superintending Agricultural Officer.

The Superintending Agricultural Officer responsible to the Director of Agriculture, Maharashtra State, Poona, is the technical head of the Division. Even though he is the officer in the State sector, he guides the District Agricultural Officer in technical matters who heads the Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad in the district sector. He is assisted in his work by the Personal Assistant, two Deputy Directors, one each for agricultural engineering and agricultural research and education, an Assistant Statistician, a Crop Protection Officer and a Horticultural Development Officer. Guidance is also sought from specialists on different branches such as Agronomist, Plant Pathologist, Agricultural Chemist, Agricultural Entomologist, Soil Specialist, Oil Seed Specialist, Rice Specialist, Millet Specialist, Statistician and Horticulturist.

District Agricultural Officer.

In the district sector, the District Agricultural Officer* controls the activities of Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad. He also works as the Secretary of the Agriculture Committee of the Zilla Parishad. He is assisted in his work by one Assistant District Agricultural Officer who looks after the day-to-day administrative and technical matters. The District Agricultural Officer under the Zilla Parishad is responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. Even then, the advice of the Superintending Agricultural Officer, Nagpur Division, Nagpur and other higher authorities in the State sector prevails in technical matters.

Achievements.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the department has made great progress in kharif and rabi campaigns and irrigation programmes. The department has so for dug 1,000 rural compost pits. It has distributed 1,300 tons of Ammonium Sulphate Nitrate, 267 tons of Urea, 178 tons of Nitra Phosphate and 387 tons of Sulphur Phosphate. The achievement of the department in the horticultural development programme,

*Recently the posts of the Agricultural Development Officers have been created in all the Zilla Parishads. The Agricultural Development Officer heads the Agriculture Department of the Zilla Parishad.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. AGRICULTURE. Achievements.

Citrus Psylla campaign and other plant programmes is considerable. The whole district has been brought under the farmers' union. In all, 1,172 farmers' unions with a total membership of 57,771 have been established. All the six tahsils have been covered by tahsil unions. The district union has also been formed.

Animal Husbandry.

The Animal Husbandry department which was a separate department at the district level till the formation of the Zilla Parishad now functions as a section of the Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad. However, some of the activities of the department have been retained in the State sector.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY DEPARTMENT

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY. Introduction.

The Animal Husbandry Department was a separate department till the formation of the Zilla Parishad. In 1961, with the inception of the Zilla Parishad, the Animal Husbandry activities in the district are looked after by the Animal Husbandry section of the Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad. At the State level, it still continues to function as a separate department.

Organisation.

At the State level, the department is headed by the Director of Animal Husbandry, Maharashtra State, Poona. The Amravati district falls under Nagpur Division and hence the District Animal Husbandry Officer is responsible to the Regional Animal Husbandry Officer, Nagpur, in technical matters. For other matters he is responsible to the Agricultural Officer of the Zilla Parishad.

The *Animal Husbandry Officer of the Zilla Parishad* is assisted by one District Veterinary Officer, one Veterinary Officer, ten Veterinary Extension Officers, 37 Stockmen and the other necessary staff.

Veterinary Institutions.

There are 58 veterinary institutions under the control of the Zilla Parishad. They include one district veterinary hospital, 11 veterinary dispensaries including five maintained by the municipal committees, 31 first-aid centres including two maintained by municipal committees, two group village centres with stockmen-in-charge and five key village centres. During the year 1962-63, a sum of Rs. 1,92,965 was earmarked for the development of animal husbandry activities in the district.

FOREST DEPARTMENT

FORESTS. Organisation.

The head of the Forest Department in the State is the Chief Conservator of Forests with his headquarters at Poona. For administrative purposes, the State is divided into six Circles, *viz.*—

Thana, Nasik, Poona, Nagpur, Chanda and Amravati with the district place as the headquarters except Chanda Circle, the headquarters of which is at Nagpur.

There is a Conservator stationed in the office of the Chief Conservator of Forests, Poona. He is in charge of the research, working plan and the development schemes in the State. The research branch is in Charge of the Silviculturist (M.F.S., class I)

with his headquarters at Poona. He has an assistant (M.F.S., class II) with headquarters at Nagpur. For each Circle or for two Circles, there is a Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plan (M.F.S., class I), for the preparation or the revision of the Working Plans and Working Schemes. He is assisted by Sub-divisional Forest Officers, Working Plans. There is also a Forest Utilisation Officer (M.F.S., class I), with headquarters at Poona. His duties are to tender advice on the proper utilisation of the forest products and in respect of the mechanisation of the forest operations.

Each Circle is in charge of a Conservator of Forests. Under the Conservator of Forests are the Divisional Forest Officers and the Sub-divisional Forest Officers who look after the administration of the Divisions and independent Sub-divisions. The Divisional Forest Officer belongs to M.F.S., Class I and the sub-Divisional Forest Officers in charge of independent Sub-Divisions to M.F.S., Class II. The Divisional Forest Officers or the Sub-Divisional Forest Officers assist him in the implementation of the Working Plans and the Conservancy work The Divisions and the Sub-divisions are divided into administrative charges called " Ranges ". Each Range is managed by a Range Forest Officer under the control of the Divisional Forest Officer or the Sub-Divisional Forest Officer. A Range is the unit of administration and the Range Forest Officer in charge is a non-gazetted subordinate officer, who is usually trained at the Forest Colleges at Dehradun or Coimbatore. Each Range is sub-divided into Range Assistant Circles (Rounds). Each such Range Assistant Circle is managed by a Forester, who is usually trained at the Forest School in the State. Finally, each Range Assistant Circle is sub-divided into Beats (Protective charges). A beat is managed by a Beat Guard, who is usually trained in the Forest Guard School in the State.

The Amravati Forest Division falling under the Amravati Circle, is under the charge of Divisional Forest Officer, Amravati, and is manned by two gazetted assistants, 15 Range Forest Officers, 88 Foresters and 234 Forest Guards.

There are following Ranges in this Division:—

Name of the Range	Headquarters
1. Amravati Range	Wadali.
2. Morshi Range	Morshi.
3. Chikhaldara Range	Chikhaldara.
4. Sembadoh Range	Sembadoh.
5. Jadida Range	Ghatang.
6. Raipur Range	Raipur.
7. Harisal Range	Harisal.
8. Dharni Range	Dharni.
9. Tarubanda Range	Tarubanda.
10. Akot Range	Akot.
11. Dhulghat Range	Hiwarkhed.
12. Paratwada Depot	Paratwada.

CHAPTER 18.

Other Departments.

FORESTS.

The forest division is conterminous with the limits of Amravati civil district. The forest area of the division is 1,428 square miles and is classified into two distinct categories, *viz.*, the Plain Forests and the Melghat Forests. The Plain forests lie scattered in small blocks in the plain area of the district amidst intensively cultivated tract. Here the forest area comprises 6 per cent of the land area. The Melghat Forests occupy the entire Melghat tahsil. It is a compact block of 1,187.37 square miles occupying the hilly terrain of the Gawilgad hills of the Satpuda Ranges. The forests are all State owned.

The forests are of dry deciduous type. The quality, however, varies in relation to climate, soil and altitude. The underlying rock is basalt and the soils derived from it are clay loam to clay.

Plain Forests.

The plains get an average rainfall of 75 cm. with long summers. The soil is shallow. This results in the forests being of drier type with teak of poor quality. The quality of the crop improves in the sheltered nala valleys due to fairly deep and drained soil. The principal species are teak (30′ – 50′) and its associates, *salai* (Boswelia serrata), *dhaora* (Anogeissus latifolia). *tendu* (Diospyros melanoxylon), *achar* (Buchanania lanzan) and *rohan* (Soyamida febrifuga). In the nala valleys, scattered bamboo clumps are met with in the under-storey. Out of the total forest area in the plains, 50 per cent constitute 'C' class, *Ramnas* and *Babulbans*. 'C' class forests are maintained as pasture land where unrestricted grazing is allowed. *Ramnas* are maintained for the supply of fodder and thatching grass. *Babulbans* have been created artificially for the supply of small timber and fuel to the agricultural population. All the forests except the 'C' class forests are managed under regular working plans.

Melghat Forests.

The Melghat forests are of dry mixed deciduous type with teak. The southern and western portions get comparatively less rains (up to 100 cm.) and are exposed to hot and desiccating winds during the long hot weather. The quality of the forests is drier type of mixed-forests with *salai* (Boswelia serrata). The portion in north of the block receives an annual rainfall varying between 150 and 250 cms. The terrain has a gradual slope. It contains highly potential forests of the division, a compact area of 600 to 700 square miles with high percentage of teak of good quality (50′ – 80′). The associates are *haldu* (Adina cordifolia), *saj* (Terminalia tomentosa), *shewan* (Gmelina arborea), *tiwas* (Ougeinia dalbergioides), *kalam* (Stephgyne parvifolia), etc. Bamboo occurs in the under storey and is of a good quality. Lantana has invaded about half of the area of the forest and reproduction is scanty. The area is managed under a regular plan.

A Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plan, is appointed for each Conservator's Circle, sometimes his jurisdiction extending over more than one Circle. The Divisional Forest Officer for this area has jurisdiction over Amravati and Nagpur Circles.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FORESTS.

The revenue and the forest departments work in close co-operation as far as the demands of the public are concerned. The Working Plan for the management and development of the forests is prepared by the forest department. A revenue officer is, however, associated to examine the prescription of the plan as far as they affect the local supply, rights and the privileges of the inhabitants of the tract, etc. The approval of the Collector concerned is to be obtained before the Plan is submitted to the Government by the Chief Conservator of Forests for sanction.

Divisional Forest Officer.

The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible for the exploitation and regeneration of forests according to the sanctioned working plans and other orders. He conducts sales, enters into contracts, supplies material to other departments and the public, realises revenue and controls expenditure under the instructions from the Conservator of Forests. He deals finally with forests offence cases having power to compound them. Rewards are also paid by him in the detection of the forest offences. In short, he is responsible for the forest administration and management in all matters relating to forest operations of a technical nature.

Sub-Divisional Forest Officer.

The duties of the Sub-Divisional Forest Officer in charge of the independent Sub-Division are exactly the same as those of a Divisional Forest Officer. The Assistant Conservator or Sub-Divisional Forest Officer attached to a Division assists the Divisional Forest Officer in the implementation of the prescription of the working plans and other conservancy works and attends to other duties that may be entrusted to him by the Divisional Forest Officer. There are two Assistant Conservators of Forests in this Division, one for the Melghat area and the other for the Plain area. The Range Forest Officer is in executive charge of the Range. He is responsible for carrying out orders of the Divisional Forest Officer, Assistant Conservator of Forests or the Sub-Divisional Forest Officer with the help of the Range Assistant and the Forest Guards and also for all works in his charge pertaining to silviculture, management and conservancy. He is also to protect the forests in his charge, to investigate into the forest offences, to supervise the removal of the forest produce by the purchasers, and by holders of rights and privileges and to issue forest transit passes and permits.

Range Forest Officer.

Forester.

The duties of the Forester are to protect the forests, to execute other works, to detect and investigate the forest offences, to issue permits and passes and to collect revenues from the permit-holders and compensation in case of forest offences. He also executes the silvicultural and other conservancy works under the guidance of the Range Forest Officer, inspects the forests and the coupes under the working of the contractors and supervises the Forest Guards.

Forest Guard.

The duty of the Forest Guard is to patrol and protect the forests in his beat, to detect the forest offences or any damage to the forests and to report to higher authorities for action to

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS.

punish the offenders. He is also to execute the works under the guidance and supervision of his Range Assistant and other superior officers.

Classification of Forests.

Under the Forest Act, the forests are divided into two categories, *viz.*, Reserved and Protected Forests. In case of reserved forests, the existing rights are either settled, transferred or commuted. In case of protected forests, the rights are clearly recorded and regulated. The different classes of forests in this division are as given below:—

		Sq. miles
1. Reserved Forests	'A' class	1,271
	'C' class	125
2. Protected Forests (Exproprietary forests)	..	32
	Total ..	1,428

'A' class reserved forests are primarily maintained for the production of timber and fuel and are under a regular management. 'C' class reserved forests are maintained for grazing.

Working Plans.

The reserved forests of 'A' class are managed under the prescription of the Working Plan. The Working Plan is drawn up after collecting the data of the stocking, the growth by actual enumeration and stump and stem analysis. The locality factors. the cultural requirements of the crop and the available labour and demand are also taken into consideration. The object of the management of the forests is then settled and on the basis of the data collected, the Working Plan for the area is prepared to implement the object of management. The axiom is to maintain and improve the condition of the forests and to increase the supply of the products substantially. The Division has two Working Plans and one Working Scheme. The forests of the Melghat, which were accessible, have a Working Plan prepared by Working Plan Officer, Amravati and was implemented from 1956-57 with the period of operation extending up to 1970-71. The forests of the plains have a separate Working Plan prepared by the Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plans, Nagpur and Amravati Circles, and has come into force from 1961-62. The period of operation of the Working Plan is up to 1975-76. The western portion of the Melghat forests had remained inaccessible till the opening of the Khandwa-Hingoli railway line. Now a Working Scheme for these forests has been prepared by the Divisional Forest Officer, Working Plan, Nagpur and Amravati Circles. The scheme was implemented in 1961-62 and will extend up to 1970-71.

Functions.

The main function of the forest department is to maintain and protect the forests according to the sanctioned Working Plan and other orders. The forest department exploits the forest resources and regenerates them. It conducts sales and realises the revenue. The salient functions of the forest department are given below.

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FORESTS.

Regeneration and Maintenance.

The forests are renewable crops on a long-term basis and need special technical skill and care. The areas as they fall due for exploitation or harvesting are to be regenerated. This may be done under natural conditions where the process of natural reproduction is satisfactory. In the absence of such circumstances, the areas are to be regenerated artificially. The areas, therefore, need careful protection against damage from men, cattle and pests. Damage through humans is by encroachment, illicit cutting damage during exploitation or by incendiarism. Damage by illicit grazing is also through the human agency. Natural calamities such as storms, floods or insect pests also cause damage. All such damage is to be avoided by constant vigil, observation and protective work.

For the protection of the forests, the co-operation of the forests' dwellers and the populace nearby is most essential. This is secured by constant propaganda in that direction. To localize fires and to check them from spreading over large areas, protective measures are taken by cutting and burning fire lines. Watchmen are employed to patrol the areas and to keep the lines free from combustible material. The Act provides for punitive measures which are also taken in case of defiance of the law.

System of Management.

The forests are being worked under the prescription of Working Plans. The systems depend on the condition of the crop and the object of management. They are briefly described below:—

(i) *Selection*-cum-*improvement.*—The high quality forests of Melghat which are capable of producing large sized timber are worked under the system of selection-*cum*-improvement. Mature trees over 48" - 54" are exploited and the other crop is tended. No openings are allowed in the area so as to reduce the density below .5. Suitable areas with mature crop, well drained soil and paucity of reproduction are cleared and artificially planted. The Working Plan prescribed that about 40–60 acres should be developed annually. This area was to be increased with advantage to the experience gained and if labour was available. The Working Plan has prescribed a lower limit due to shortage of labour in the area as a result of which extensive areas remained undeveloped.

(ii) *Coppice with Reserve.*—The low quality forests of Melghat and the forests in the plains are only capable of producing small sized timber and fuel. These forests are, therefore, worked under the system of coppice with reserve on a rotation of 40 years. Under the prescription, suitable areas capable of producing large sized timber are planted artificially.

(iii) *Clear felling and planting.*—The *Babulban* forests in the plains are worked under the system of clear felling and planting. These forests have been created to meet the demand for fuel and small timber from the agriculturists in the intensively cultivated tracts. The method of planting is by agri-silviculture.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS. System of Management.

(iv) *Improvement fellings.*—The open and poorer types of forests in the process of recoupment in the plain area are worked under improvement fellings. The crops in this system are tended in favour of the economic species. Open areas with fairly deep soil are regenerated artificially. The method used is agri-silviculture.

Side by side, the bamboo forests are worked under the prescription of the Working Plan on a cutting cycle of 4 years.

Exploitation.

The forest produces are divided into two main classes, major and minor. The major produce is timber. Fuel, bamboo, rusa oil, grass, leaves, minerals, etc., are classed as minor forest produce.

The high quality forests of Melghat are exploited under a departmental agency. The produce is collected at the sale depots and sold by auction. The low quality forests in the plains are exploited through the agency of contractors. The areas are auctioned annually in the rainy season. The other minor forest produce is sold on rated passes at a fixed schedule of rates. The rates are, however, differentiated into commercial rates and *nistar* rates. Produce which agriculturists need for their bona-fide consumption and not for sale is charged at the *nistar* rates which are low.

Income and Expenditure.

The annual revenue of the division from the various sources is as given below:—

		1959-60	1960-61
		Rs.	Rs.
1.	Timber and other produce removed by departmental agency.	47,19,143	49,00,576
2.	Timber and other produce removed bv purchasers	1,70,656	1,21,009
3.	Fuel and charcoal	54,272	42,787
4.	Bamboo	1,33,678	1,42,761
5.	Grass and grazing	2,10,006	2,03,418
6.	Other minor forest produce	66,393	30,727
7.	Commutation	270	371
8.	Miscellaneous	1,11,428	1,99,229
	Total ..	54,65,846	56,40,878
	Expenditure 'B'	11,53,323	11,68,637
	'C'	4,38,148	4,40,810
	Development Schemes	1,54,441	1,46,124
	Total ..	17,45,912	17,55,571
	Surplus ..	37,19,934	38,85,307

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

FORESTS.

Income and Expenditure.

The major part of the expenditure is on timber exploitation done on a departmental basis, in which about 7 lakhs cft. of timber on an average is exploited and sold at the sale depot. The conservancy works such as repairs to roads, buildings, fire protection, plantation and development are fairly numerous.

Forest Roads.

The forest area has a good system of roads which is used for the extraction of the forest produce. Timber exploited departmentally in Melghat is extracted by the contractors with their own trucks. The total length of the forest roads in the Division is 630 M. 5 F. of which 13 M. 3 F. are metalled and the rest are fair weather roads.

Public Relations.

The agriculturists enjoy forest privileges and concessions in respect of grazing and forest produce. An agriculturist, possessing eight cattle-heads is allowed free grazing for four cattle-heads, and for remaining at privileged rates. Agriculturists owning more than eight cattle-heads are allowed six units per plough of land under cultivation and the remainder at commercial rates. The privileged rates are low which come to about half the commercial rates. This concession is given to cattle owned by agriculturists. Only timber and fuel is allowed for bonafide consumption at noncompetitive rates which come to about half the rates prevailing in the market. Besides, the use of water and minerals in the reserved forests for agricultural purposes is allowed free.

At the district level, there is a sub-committee for forest and *nistar* which considers the problems in respect of the *nistar* requirements and other difficulties connected with the management of the forests.

Forest Villages

For the supply of dependable labour on the forest works, forest villages have been established in the Reserved Forests. They are sanctioned under the orders of the Conservator of Forests. A villager is given a plot of land admeasuring about 13 to 15 acres or one plough land at a nominal rent of Rc. 1.00. He is also given the forest produce needed for his bonafide requirements free of cost. The Forest department looks after the welfare of the villagers and provides them with amenities of life such as water-supply, education and medical help. The adult villagers in turn have to discharge certain obligations. They are to abide by the orders of the Forest Officer and to attend to forest operations on the payment of wages at the rates prescribed by the department. These villages are in fact labour colonies which are mainly responsible for the protection of forests and execution of the exploitation and conservancy works.

Van Mahotsava.

The '*Van Mahotsava*' initially started under the orders of the Government of India has now become a national festival. It is celebrated each year in the first fortnight of July. The object of the festival is to encourage the planting of trees by all in suitable places to make up for the deficit of areas of forest which is expected at 33⅓ per cent of the total available area. The object is to ameliorate the climatic conditions and to conserve soil and moisture. Plants for the '*Van Mahotsava*' are

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FORESTS. Van Mahotsava.

supplied free by the Forest department. For this purpose, nurseries have been raised at Wadali in Amravati Range, Sembadoh in Sembadoh Range, Chikhaldara in Chikhaldara Range and Dhakna in Tarubanda Range.

Propaganda, about the availability of seeds and seedlings is made through the Zilla Parishad and the Village Panchayats. Instructions are given on the planting of the trees and their aftercare and the benefits the individual and the community may derive from the successful planting of trees. The observance of the festival from year to year has created a forest sense among the people. During 1960-61, 20,050 plants were supplied free to various institutions and individuals.

DIRECTORATE OF INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRIES. Organisation.

The work of the Directorate of Industries of the Maharashtra State in Amravati district is mainly confined to the development and progress of large-scale, small-scale and cottage industries. The Department of Industries was reorganised and the Directorate of Industries was formed in August 1960. Control of cottage industries was transferred to the Directorate of Industries with effect from 1st December 1960.

Structure.

The Industries Commissioner and the Director of Industries who is a Senior I.A.S. Officer, is the head of the Directorate. He is also the Central Stores Purchasing Officer, Controller of Weights and Measures, State Coal Controller and State Textile Controller. The Deputy Director of Industries, Nagpur Region (Class I, State Industries Service), is under the control of the Industries Commissioner and the Director of Industries. His jurisdiction extends over Amravati, Akola, Buldhana, Nagpur, Bhandara, Chanda, Wardha and Yeotmal districts. He is assisted in his work by five Industries Officers stationed one each at Amravati, Akola, Nagpur, Chanda and Wardha. All the Collectors are *ex officio* Deputy Commissioners of Industries. There are two Junior Industries Inspectors and one Senior Industries Inspector along with three Manual Assistants, posted at Achalpur, Chandur and Amravati.

Functions.

The main functions of the Directorate of Industries are to foster the growth of industries and bring about their all-round development.

The functions of the directorate pertaining to (1) Large-scale, (2) Small-scale and (3) cottage industries are as under:—

Large-scale Industries:—

(i) to process applications for industrial licences under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, as amended, and to make suitable recommendations to Government of India,

(ii) to advise parties on formalities to be completed for setting up a factory and technical matters,

(iii) to assist parties in securing land, water, power, transport facilities, etc.,

(iv) to offer laboratory facilities for analysis of raw materials, finished products, etc. and

(v) to promote industrial research by providing research grants.

Small-scale Industries:—

(i) to assist parties in securing land, water, power, transport facilities, etc.,

(ii) to develop suitable sites as in the industrial estates, so as to offer to the small entrepreneurs ready-built worksheds with power and water arrangements and with facilities like post office, canteen, etc., on co-operative basis in suitable cases,

(iii) to grant financial assistance by way of loans under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960 and the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961 and subsidy on power supply and to sponsor grant of such assistance by institutions like State Bank of India, the Bombay State Financial Corporation and the National Small Industries Corporation for hire purchase of machinery,

(iv) to assist parties in securing raw materials imported and controlled and indigenous controlled materials,

(v) to assist parties in marketing products by registration with the Central Stores Purchase Organisation, Director General of Supplies and Disposals, National Small Industries Corporation and by persuading them to join the Quality Marking Scheme,

(vi) to collect quarterly statistics of production and labour and

(vii) to advise parties on formalities and technical matters.

Cottage Industries.—

(i) to grant financial assistance exceeding Rs. 3,000 up to Rs. 5,000 under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960 and Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961, to artisans and to undertake formation of industrial co-operatives, and

(ii) to encourage the industries by marginal preferences in State Purchase Programme.

Besides the duties in regard to the development of industries, the Directorate is entrusted with many miscellaneous duties such as—

(i) central purchase of stores required by Government departments and institutions,

(ii) enforcement of the Bombay Weights and Measures (Enforcement) Act, 1958,

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. INDUSTRIES. Functions.

(iii) to grant financial assistance up to Rs. 3,000 under the Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Act, 1960 and Maharashtra State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961 and under bona-fide craftsmen and backward class artisans and educated unemployed schemes and

(iv) to organise training-*cum*-production centres. Of these the last two have been transferred to Zilla Parishad with effect from May 1964.

Training Centres.

The following departmental training centres were conducted by the Directorate of Industries in Amravati district prior to their transfer to Zilla Parishad from May 1962:—

(1) Government Cotton Weaving Training Centre, Ner-Pinglai (Departmental Training Centre), Morshi Block.

(2) Government Tailoring Training School, Ner-Pinglai, Morshi Block.

(3) Government Doll and Toys Centre, Amravati, Amravati Block.

(4) Government Tailoring Centre, Dharni, Dharni Block.

(5) Government Leather Goods Training-*cum*-Production Centre, Daryapur, Daryapur Block.

(6) Government Training-*cum*-Production Centre (Chrome Tannery, Amravati), Amravati Block.

(7) Government Facility Centre in Dyeing and Printing at Gadegaon, Warud Block.

(8) Government Rope making Centre, Sadrabadi (Cottage Industries Scheme), Dharni Block.

(9) Government Carpentry and Smithy Centre, Sadrabadi (Cottage Industries Scheme), Dharni Block.

(10) Government Rope making Centre, Chikhaldara (Cottage Industries Scheme), Chikhaldara Block.

(11) Implant Training Scheme, Amravati, Amravati Block.

These centres admitted students who had studied up to IVth standard and who were between the ages of 14 and 25. Fifteen such students were admitted to these training centres. The survey scheme devised by the Small Industries Service Institute, Bombay, was carried in special survey in October/November 1961 only to study the development of S. S. and C. I. in the district.

An industrial estate has been established on Government accounts at Amravati. Of the 25 sheds that have been allotted eight factory sheds have been completed. Five factories are functioning in the estate giving employment to 37 workers.

The Directorate paid loans to parties from Amravati district to the tune of Rs. 1,00,000.

Under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, as amended, three licences have been granted for establishment of

Other Departments.

INDUSTRIES.

Training Centres.

new industrial undertakings, substantial expansion of existing ones and for manufacture of new articles. These industries and their locations are as under:—

Vegetable oils	Amravati.
Vegetable oil by solvent extraction plant	Amravati.
Nitro-Glycerine gelatinised dynamites and blasting supplies.	Amravati.

A pilot project was sanctioned in the year 1956. It, however, started functioning by the end of 1957. The pilot project was to operate till the end of February 1963.

Co-operation Department

Co-operation. Introduction.

The Co-operation Department plays an important role in the agro-industrial economy and particularly in the sphere of rural credit. The activities of the Co-operative Department are associated with rural finance, agricultural marketing, industrial co-operatives, regulated markets and moneylending business. The activities of the Co-operative Department are governed under the various enactments. The Co-operative Department is entrusted with the administration of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1960; the C. P. and Berar Agricultural Produce Market Act, 1935; the Central Provinces Cotton Market Act, 1932; the Bombay Money-lenders Act, 1946 and the Bombay Warehousing Act, 1959 and the Rules made thereunder.

Organisation.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishads the co-operative movement has come under the dual control of the State Government and the Zilla Parishad. The Co-operative Department of the Zilla Parishad is responsible for the registration, organisation, supervision, inspection, etc., of all types of co-operatives in rural areas having authorised share capital of Rs. 50,000 or working capital up to Rs. 5 lakhs. The supervision and control over regulated markets is also entrusted to the district sector. All other schemes are looked after by the department in the State sector.

The Registrar of Co-operative Societies is the head of the department at the State level. The Divisional Joint Registrar is the Divisional Officer who also works as the Registrar of money-lenders for his division. He is assisted by one Divisional Deputy Registrar, three Assistant Registrars and one Assistant Statistician.

The activities under the State sector in the district are placed under the administrative control of the District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Amravati, who is a class I Gazetted Officer in the Maharashtra Co-operative Service and upon whom have been conferred various statutory powers by the Government. Under the Bombay Warehousing Act, 1959, the District Deputy Registrar has to work as 'Prescribed Authority' and under the Money-lending Act, he has to work as the Registrar

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. CO-OPERATION. Organisation.

of Money-lenders. The distribution of work between the two Assistant Registrars is done by the District Deputy Registrar on territorial basis. The Assistant Registrar has to work as the Public Enquiry Officer for the purpose of processing loan applications of the Land Development Bank along with the District Deputy Registrar, the Block Development Officers, the Assistant Block Development Officers and the Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad. Under the Money-lenders Act, the Assistant Registrar has to work as the Assistant Registrar of Money-lenders within his jurisdiction.

Co-operative Officers.

In the State sector, at the district level, there are two co-operative officers and two Assistant Co-operative Officers who have to work under the control of the District Deputy Registrar and Assistant Registrar. These officers are not expected to exercise any statutory powers under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1961, but they have to perform certain statutory functions as and when they are appointed for the purpose. The Co-operative Officers, however, enjoy statutory powers under section B-A of the Bombay Money-lenders Act in respect of inspection of records of money-lenders.

Supervisory Staff.

There are 13 Supervising Unions with 23 Supervisors. Their services are placed at the disposal of Supervising Unions which are federal bodies of large sized multipurpose co-operative societies, small sized agricultural primary credit societies including *sewa* societies and grain banks.

The Supervisors and Additional Supervisors visit and inspect societies, in their charge, according to the inspection programme prepared quarterly. The Supervisors and Additional Supervisors also attend to the work of submission of Normal Credit Statements and preparation of loan applications with the help of Group Secretaries of the societies, who work under Supervising Unions and under the administrative supervision of Supervisors and additional supervisors. As far as inspection and supervision over the agricultural primaries is concerned, the Central Financing Agency has also its own staff of Inspectors. The work of recoveries of societies' dues from members and bank's dues from societies is also looked after and pursued by the above staff of the Bank, though the primary responsibility for effecting recovery is of the elected Managing Committee of the Primary Societies and the Secretaries.

District Supervision Committee.

At the district level, an *Ad hoc* Committee, *viz.*, District Supervision Committee has been constituted with the District Deputy Registrar, Chairman of the Central Co-operative Bank, Chairman of the District Co-operative Board, two representatives of Taluka Supervising Unions and one representative of Agricultural non-credit societies in the district as members.

The Co-operative Officer is the *ex officio* Secretary of the District Supervision Committee.

It is an *ad hoc* body created by the administrative orders of the Government and it works as a link between the Taluka

District Supervision Committee.

Supervising Unions in the district and the State Board of Supervision. The Committee also guides the Supervising Unions. The Supervising Unions are formed in every Block and they have to advise, guide, assist, rectify and control their constituents by effective and regular supervision over them and to employ secretaries for affiliated societies, to assess credit of such societies and to make recommendation on Normal Credit Statements of societies by endorsing them to the Central Financing Agency.

District Co-operative Board.

The work of education and training in co-operation and propaganda for the diffusion of Co-operative movement is done by the District Co-operative Board Ltd., Amravati, which works under the guidance of the Maharashtra State Co-operative Union Ltd., Bombay. The Board also conducts training classes for secretaries, members of the Managing Committee and other members of co-operative societies. The Sahakari Vidyalaya, Amravati, which is a Co operative Training School for the four districts of Vidarbha, imparts training in co-operation to the junior officers and gives "Lower Diploma in Co-operation" to successful candidates.

Auditing.

The audit of co-operative societies is a statutory duty of the Registrar under Section 81 of the Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, and accordingly he, by himself or through the person authorised on his behalf, audits every society at least once a year. As stated above, the audit staff has now been separated from the regular administrative wing. The audit staff of the district consists of one Special Auditor. Co-operative Societies, Amravati, who is a class II Officer, 10 auditors and 13 sub-auditors. The audit staff in the district is under the administrative control of Divisional Special Auditor who is a class I Officer at divisional level.

The Special Auditor at the district level makes arrangement for audit of all societies in the district, for which purpose a list of societies at the end of the Co-operative Year (*i.e.*, on 30th June) is prepared and societies are allotted to different members of audit staff, according to the volume of business and size of the societies. The Act also provides for appointment of certified auditors with necessary qualifications. The societies which can get their accounts audited by certified auditors are notified in the Gazette and accordingly, these societies make arrangements to get their accounts audited through the certified auditors from the approved panel.

Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act, 1960.

The Maharashtra Co-operative Societies Act of 1960 provides that all disputes touching the constitution. election of officers, conduct of business and management of societies shall be referred to the Registrar. Accordingly, the District Deputy Registrar and Assistant Registrars act as arbitrators for deciding the disputes in the district referred to them. Under the Act, the Divisional Joint Registrar is empowered to appoint persons to work as Registrar's nominees to whom the disputes

CHAPTER 13.

Other Departments.

CO-OPERATION.

Maharashtra Co-operative. Societies Act.

can be referred for decision, in case the District Deputy Registrar or Assistant Registrar is not in a position to decide the dispute. All these officers are selected from legal practitioners of good standing. The powers regarding the award of decision in the disputes are exercised by the Assistant Registrars in the department, concurrently with the District Deputy Registrar and Divisional Joint Registrar for all societies of which the headquarters are in their jurisdiction.

Co-operation and Industries Officer.

The Co-operation and Industries Officer of the Zilla Parishad who works as the Secretary of the Co-operation and Industries Committee of the Zilla Parishad heads the department at the district level. He is assisted by one Co-operative Officer, one Assistant Co-operative Officer, 13 Extension Officers and the requisite staff. The department controls two training-*cum*-production centres, *viz.*, the Daryapur Chrome Tannery and Leather Workers' Training-*cum*-Production Centre and the Amravati Chrome Tannery and Leather Workers' Training-*cum*-Production Centre. The five training centres inclusive of two tailoring centres one each at Morshi and Chikhaldara, one cotton weaving school at Ner-Pingalai, one dyeing and printing centre at Pusala and one doll centre at Amravati.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, 39 societies have been organised and registered in the district including 16 Sewa Sahakari Societies, 8 Dairy Societies, 5 Industrial Societies, 3 Purchase and Sale Societies, 3 Labour Contract Societies, 1 Farming Society, 1 Housing Society and 2 Crop Protection Societies.

The following tables show the progress made by the co-operative societies in the district from 1955-56 to 1961-62:—

TABLE No. 1

PROGRESS OF AGRICULTURAL PRIMARIES IN THE AMRAVATI DISTRICT AGRICULTURAL CREDIT, MULTIPURPOSE SOCIETIES AND SEWA SOCIETIES.

Year	Number of Societies	Number of villages covered	Number of members	Share capital*	Reserve and other funds*	Working capital	Advances made*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1955-56 ..	624	1,283	20,884	5·15	4·49	53·80	45·42
1956-57 ..	614	1,305	24,046	6·83	5·40	49·53	35·98
1957-58 ..	617	1,384	28,707	9·59	4·88	72·36	66·88
1958-59 ..	614	1,468	34,620	13·94	6·02	104·47	88·28
1959-60 ..	639	1,488	42,943	19·07	6·68	139·11	87·92
1960-61 ..	647	1,502	51,349	31·81	8·92	183·97	145·16
1961-62 ..	656	1,514	55,459	40·41	8·46	232·59	116·60

**Source* : District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Amravati.

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Other Departments.

CO-OPERATION.

Co-operation and Industries Officer.

TABLE No. 2

PROGRESS OF CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

(All Types of Societies)

Year	Number of Societies	Number of members	Share capital*	Reserve and other funds*	Working capital*	Advances made*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1955-56	799	41,497	20·00	13·70	142·24	58·00
1956-57	773	46,514	25·10	16·57	153·83	49·02
1957-58	798	53,831	30·00	18·94	211·86	74·22
1958-59	834	61,533	39·74	22 29	287·48	97·44
1959-60	901	71,981	53·98	25·70	400·32	123·16
1960-61	958	81,958	77·02	30·66	472·33	222·71
1961-62	1,009	88,136	99·50	31·55	571·81	144·43

MAHARASHTRA STATE ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION

ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION.

Introduction.

The process of Nationalisation of Passenger Transport Services in Amravati District was started in 1946 when the then Bombay Government took over from the Central Provinces Transport Services and finally purchased and renamed it in 1955 as the Provincial Transport Services. After the reorganisation of States in November 1956, the operations were looked after by a separate department under the erstwhile Government of Bombay called the "Transferred Road Transport Undertakings Department". With effect from July 1, 1961, the department was abolished and the Provincial Transport Services, Nagpur, along with the State Transport Services in the Marathwada Region, were amalgamated with the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation. The State Transport in Amravati district forms a part of the Nagpur Division of the Maharashtra State Road Transport Corporation.

Organisation.

The officer in charge of Nagpur Division is designated as the Officer on Special Duty and is a Class I Officer. He is under the immediate control of the Central Office of which the General Manager is the administrative head. He is assisted by the following departments, *viz.*, (1) Administration, (2) Traffic, (3) Mechanical Engineering, (4) Accounts and Audit, (5) Statistics, (6) Security, (7) Stores, (8) Civil Engineering, (9) Secretarial, (10) Legal and (11) Central Workshop.

As the head of the division, he is responsible for the State Transport Operations in Nagpur Division and is assisted by 11 Class II Officers who are charged with the following functional responsibilities.

*Source : District Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Amravati.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. ROAD TRANSPORT CORPORATION. Organisation.

The Divisional Traffic Officer is in charge of all matters relating to traffic and operation and the Labour Officer looks after all matters relating to labourers' relation with the administration. Matters relating to publicity in the division are also looked after by the Labour Officer.

The Divisional Accounts Officer and the Divisional Statistician look after the work in connection with Accounts and Statistics. The technical side of the division is looked after by the Divisional Mechanical Engineer. In addition, there are as many Depot Managers as there are depots who are wholly responsible for the working of the respective depots in the division.

Depots.

The operations in the Amravati district were first started on the Nagpur-Amravati route. A depot was established at Amravati in January 1957 with 24 vehicles. By the end of December 1962, the Amravati depot had 40 vehicles operating on 12 routes. The Nagpur Division, of which Amravati district forms a part had 327 buses plying on 141 routes. The average daily mileage operated by these buses during December 1962 was 29,991. They carried on an average, 63,684 passengers per day.

Maintenance.

The light and heavy repairs of the buses are carried out at the Divisional Workshop situated at Nagpur. After the operation of every 12,000 miles, the vehicles are routed by the depots to the Divisional Workshop for preventive maintenance. In addition, a number of depot workshops are situated at each of the following places for the daily maintenance of vehicles, *viz.*, Yeotmal (49), Nagpur City (47), Nagpur-Wardha (46), Amravati (40), Nagpur-Amravati (34), Nagpur-Bhandara (32) and Talegaon (14). The number of vehicles attached to each of these depots are given in brackets. Regular daily and weekly servicing, weekly and 4,000 mile docking for maintenance are carried out in these depots.

For the convenience of the travelling public, the Corporation has provided temporary bus stations at Amravati and Achalpur.

FISHERIES DEPARTMENT

FISHERIES. Departmental set up.

Before 1956, fisheries activities in the eight districts of the Vidarbha region and the three districts, Chhindwara, Seoni and Betul, now under Madhya Pradesh, were looked after by an Assistant Fishery Development Officer posted at Nagpur while the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer with headquarters at Bhandara was in charge of fish seed collection scheme with Statewide jurisdiction. The posts of Assistant Fishery Development Officers were redesignated as the Superintendents of Fisheries with the Reorganization of States in 1956. Subsequently the Superintendent of Fisheries, Bhandara, was placed in charge of the fisheries activities in Bhandara district while the Superintendent of Fisheries, Nagpur, supervised the work in the remaining seven districts of Vidarbha region. Both the Superintendents were responsible directly to the Director of Fisheries, Bombay.

With the addition of one more post of Superintendent under the Second Five-Year Plan in 1958 with headquarters at Chanda, the work in Chanda and Yeotmal districts was transferred to him. The post of Assistant Director of Fisheries was created with headquarters at Nagpur as a regional head for Vidarbha region. With this, the Superintendent of Fisheries, Nagpur, has control over Amravati district along with the districts of Nagpur, Wardha, Akola and Buldhana.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FISHERIES. Superintendent of Fisheries.

The Assistant Director of Fisheries is the planning, supervising and co-ordinating officer for all the activities of the department in the three fisheries divisions of Vidarbha region.

Duties.

The duties of the Superintendent of Fisheries, are as follows.—

(i) To carry out survey of new sheets of water to assess their suitability for pisciculture,

(ii) to stock tanks and ponds with suitable varieties of fish every year,

(iii) to construct nurseries and to nurture fry in them,

(iv) to form and supervise all the fisheries co-operative societies and to devise ways and means to improve the socio-economic conditions of fishermen,

(v) to investigate applications from fishermen for loan and subsidy from the Government,

(vi) to effect loan recoveries and credit the money into the treasury,

(vii) to associate and encourage fishermen to take advantage of different schemes of the department,

(viii) to collect statistics of fish and other data pertaining to fisheries and fishermen of the district,

(ix) to give technical guidance to the deep tank fishing operations conducted by the societies,

(x) to supervise the working of ice and cold storage plant, and

(xi) to supervise in general the work of development of fisheries in areas under his jurisdiction.

Fisheries Co-operatives.

Improvement of socio-economic condition of fishermen has been one of the main objectives of the Fisheries Department. Attention is focused on the formation of fisheries co-operatives. The first co-operative society named as the 'Sahakari Machhimari Samstha, Wadali' was registered on 26th April 1961. At present, there are three fishermen's co-operative societies functioning in the district. Apart from the activities undertaken by these societies, fishing permits to net out fish from the departmental tanks are also given to the societies. During departmental works, such as transplantation of fingerlings, induced breeding experiments, etc., members of these societies are employed on daily wages. Fishermen of Wadali society also sell marine fish (dried as well as iced) obtained from Bombay.

Monsoon season is utilised for making nets. This serves to keep the members fully occupied during the slack season also.

CHAPTER 13. Other Departments. FISHERIES. Work done.

During the First Five-Year Plan, a departmental demonstration-*cum*-production unit of fisheries was started in Sakkar tank, Chikhaldara, with an area of about 12 acres. Stocking and netting operations were managed departmentally.

One scheme, *viz*., stocking of inland waters with carp fry was implemented during the Second Five-Year Plan in Amravati district. Survey of several water sheets was carried out and an area of about 462 acres was brought under pisciculture. Accordingly, Sakkar, Pohra and Chhatri tanks were stocked with 1,60,000 Bengal carp fry. Targets for survey, stocking and netting have almost been exceeded.

The Third Five-Year Plan includes the following four fishery schemes for Amravati district:—

(*a*) stocking of tanks with carp fry,

(*b*) assistance for the purchase of fishery requisites,

(*c*) grant of loans for the development of fisheries, and

(*d*) scheme for the development of co-operative fisheries.

The total outlay on the schemes is Rs. 1,00,936 for the district. During the first two years, the survey of water sheets covering an area of 950 acres was made and nine tanks, measuring 283 acres, were brought under pisciculture. At present, there are in all 12 tanks in which quick growing varieties of fish seed (6,52,000 carp fry and 250 fingerlings) are stocked.

Pashu Sudhar Society, Karla, undertook fish culture in Virgaon tanks in the year 1961-62 and carp fry were supplied to the society. Another society was also organised in Achalpur City in March 1963. Fishing permission to net out fish from the departmental tanks is enjoyed by the Wadali Fisherman's Society only. Up to the end of August 1963, 9,500 kg. of fish have been netted out from the departmental tanks. In addition, successful demonstrations of scientific methods of fish culture to fish farmers were also given. Total revenue realised from the sale of marketable surplus of fish from tanks was Rs. 5,994.95.

Induced breeding experiments were started in Chhatri tank but due to delayed rains, no success could be achieved. There is one ice factory at Amravati. Unsold fish is stocked in ice. Government have invested Rs. 1,500 in the share capital of Wadali society and Rs. 1,500 in that of Karla society. Managerial subsidy of Rs. 1,000 was also given to Wadali society.

Fishing Rights.

Fishing rights in rivers are not leased out in the district. Government tanks belong to Revenue, Irrigation and Forest Departments. Some tanks are owned by local bodies like municipalities, gram panchayats, etc. Generally, the tank is auctioned in favour of the highest bidder, preference being given to the fisheries co-operative societies or fishermen. Moreover, the tanks are not given on long term lease to the fish farmers.

CHAPTER 14 — LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

INTRODUCTION.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE DISTRICT vests in the various statutory bodies enjoying local autonomy in different degrees. The progress of these institutions could be marked in three spheres. Firstly, in regard to their constitution. from fully or partly nominated bodies, they have now become entirely elective, though there exists a provision in the law for nomination by the State of a member in case of necessity. Secondly, in regard to their franchise which has reached the widest possible limit. *viz.*, universal adult franchise, through an enactment so that every person who (a) is a citizen of India, (b) has attained the age of 21 years and (c) has the requisite residence. business premises or taxation qualification, is now entitled to be enrolled as a voter. Prior to 1958, reservation of seats for women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes was not provided for. After the amended Act was passed (Act No. XVI of 1958), reservation has been provided for women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes under certain conditions. Thirdly, wider and wider powers have been gradually conferred on local bodies and their particular needs for the administration of areas under their charge have been met with.

Another reform pertains to the controlling authority over Local Self-Government institutions. Before the re-organization of the States, State Government used to exercise this control, but consequent upon the revival of the posts of Commissioners, these powers have been delegated to the Divisional Commissioner, Nagpur Division, Nagpur, whose jurisdiction extends over the district of Amravati also. These powers are now exercised by the Commissioner, Nagpur Division, with certain exceptions where these powers continue to be exercised by the State Government. The Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act is a landmark in the democratic decentralisation of the Governmental responsibilities. This Act envisages replacement of the former District Boards and Janpad Sabhas, bodies with lesser powers by the Zilla Parishad with much more powers, financial and otherwise.

MUNICIPALITIES

MUNICIPALITIES.

THERE ARE 13 MUNICIPAL COMMITTEES in the district at Amravati, **Badnera**, Chandur Railway, Dhamangaon, Daryapur, Anjangaon, Achalpur City, Achalpur Civil Station, **Morshi**, Shendurjana, **Warud**, Chandur **Bazar** and Chikhaldara.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

MUNICIPALITIES.

Except the Chikhaldara Municipal Committee all others have elected representatives. They are governed under the provisions of the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922 (II of 1922), as amended and the rules made thereunder. The Chikhaldara Municipal Committee has a body nominated by the State Government.

The total area under the administration of municipalities in the district according to 1961 census was 146.34 sq. km. (56.5 square miles) with a population of 3,21,921.

In the district, the municipal committees came to be first established at Amravati and Achalpur on February 2, 1887. The municipal committee was established at Amravati with the Deputy Commissioner or the Collector as the President while the Sub-Divisional Officer, Achalpur, acted as the President of Achalpur Municipal Committee. The third municipal committee was established at Achalpur Civil Station on March 27, 1893 with Sub-Divisional Officer, Achalpur, as President. All these municipal committees were established under the first legislation concerning the Local Fund Act (1869).

Following the Montford Reforms in 1920, the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922 was enacted. It replaced the Central Provinces Municipalities Act, 1903 and the Central Provinces Municipal (Amendment) Act, 1918. This amended Act continued in a modified form with regard to several provisions of the earlier Acts connected with the liberalisation of the constitution of municipal bodies and adult franchise. This, therefore, resulted in the constitution of as many as 10 Municipal Committees in Amravati district as noted below: —

Name of the Municipal Committee	Year in which established
(1) Anjangaon Surji	1930
(2) Badnera	1936
(3) Warud	1936
(4) Daryapur	1937
(5) Morshi	1937
(6) Dhamangaon	1940
(7) Chandur Bazar	1948
(8) Chandur Railway	1948
(9) Shendurjana	1948
(10) Chikhaldara	1948

LIST OF MUNICIPAL COMMITTEES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of Municipality (1)	Population, 1961 Census (2)	Area in square Kilometres (3)	Number of wards (4)	Number of councillors: Total (5)	Reserved for women (6)	Reserved for S. C. and S. T. (7)	Unreserved (8)	Nominated (9)
Amravati	1,37,875	36·26 (14 Sq. miles)	20	41	4	3 S. C.	34	..
Badnera	23,840	10·36 (4 Sq. miles)	16	20	2	1 S. C.	17	..
Chandur Railway	9,348	7·77 (3 Sq. miles)	8	10	1	1 S. C.	8	..
Dhamangaon	12,261	10·36 (4 Sq. miles)	8	12	1	1	10	..
Daryapur	15,182	10·36 (4 Sq. miles)	11	13	1	1	11	..
Anjangaon	21,931	7·77 (3 Sq. miles)	13	16	2	1	13	..
Achalpur City	36,538	15·54 (6 Sq. miles)	29	35	4	2	29	..
Achalpur Civil Station	17,490	10·36 (4 Sq. miles)	11	15	..	..	11	4
Chandur Bazar	6,974	10·36 (4 Sq. miles)	10	12	..	..	10	2
Morshi	11,946	5·18 (2 Sq. miles)	14	18	2	1	15	..
Warud	15,598	10·36 (4 Sq. miles)	13	15	2	..	13	..
Shendurjana	11,610	7·77 (3 Sq. miles)	9	11	1	1	9	..
Chikhaldara	1,338	3·88 (1½ Sq. miles)	4	8	..	..	..	8
Total ..	3,21,921	146·34 (56½ Sq. Miles)	166	226	20	12	180	14

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Local Self-Government.

MUNICIPALITIES.

Under the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, 1922 (II of 1922), as amended, the State Government have power to declare by notification any local area to be a municipal committee and to extend the present limits of the existing municipal committees. Every municipal committee constitutes a body consisting of elected councillors, the Commissioner of the Division having power to nominate councillors to represent the wards, which fail to elect any seat allotted to them. The State Government have powers to prescribe the number and the extent of the wards to be constituted in each municipal committee, the number of councillors to be elected from each ward and the seats reserved for women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes.

The term of the office of a municipal committee is for five years but it can be extended further by the State Government. Under the provisions of the Act, every municipality is to be presided over by a President elected from among the councillors. The President holds office for such term which is not less than one year or not less than the residue of the term of office of the Committee, whichever is less and not exceeding three years as the Committee may previous to election of the President determine or until the expiry of the term of office as a member. Each committee has a Vice-President, who is nominated by the President from amongst the members of the Committee.

A President or a Vice-President can be removed from the office, by the committee by a resolution passed to that effect, provided that three-fourth of the total number of members of the committee vote in favour of such a resolution. The President or the Vice-President is given a reasonable opportunity to show cause as to why such an action should not be taken against him.

A President or a Vice-President is also removable from office by the State Government for misconduct or neglect or incapacity to perform his duty after giving the person reasonable opportunity of showing cause before orders are passed.

Under the provisions of the Municipalities Act and the rules thereunder the duties of the President are as given below:—

(*a*) to preside over the meetings of the municipal committee.

(*b*) guide the financial and executive administration and to perform such other executive functions as may be performed by the municipality, and

(*c*) to supervise and exercise control over all officers and servants of the municipality.

The Act provides for the formation of sub-committees of different branches of a municipal committee for administration by the elected members.

The Act divides municipal functions into obligatory and optional. The former includes all matters essential to the health, safety, convenience and well-being of the population

while the latter are those which though thought to be the legitimate objects of local expenditure, are not considered absolutely essential. The following are among the obligatory duties of all the municipalities:—

(*a*) lighting public streets, places and buildings;

(*b*) cleaning public streets, places and removing noxious vegetation and abating all public nuisances;

(*c*) disposing of night-soil and rubbish;

(*d*) extinguishing fires and protecting life and property when fires occur;

(*e*) regulating or abating offensive or dangerous trades or practices;

(*f*) removing obstructions and projections in public streets or places;

(*g*) establishing and managing cattle-pounds;

(*h*) securing possession of or removing buildings which are in a dilapidated state;

(*i*) acquiring and managing, changing and regulating places for the disposal of the dead;

(*j*) constructing, altering and maintaining public streets, culverts, municipal boundary marks, markets, slaughter-houses, latrines, urinals, drainage services and public facilities for drinking water;

(*k*) providing proper and sufficient supply of water;

(*l*) naming streets and numbering houses;

(*m*) registering births and deaths;

(*n*) carrying out public vaccinations;

(*o*) establishing and maintaining poor-houses;

(*p*) printing and publishing annual administrative reports of the committee;

(*q*) taking such measures as may be required to prevent the outbreak, spread or recurrence of infectious diseases;

(*r*) carrying out the annual census of agricultural cattle and

(*s*) registration of cattle or any specified categories of cattle.

Municipalities may at their discretion provide out of their funds for the following among others:—

(*a*) reclaiming unhealthy localities and laying out new public streets;

(*b*) constructing, establishing or maintaining public parks, gardens, libraries, museums, halls, offices, *sarais*, residential houses, hospitals and dispensaries;

(*c*) furthering educational objects other than the establishment and maintenance of primary schools;

(*d*) watering public streets and places;

(*e*) planting and maintaining road-side and other trees;

(*f*) taking a census and granting rewards for information which may tend to secure the correct registration of vital statistics ;

(*g*) undertaking destruction or detention and preservation of stray dogs ;

(*h*) securing or assisting to secure suitable places for carrying on offensive trades ;

(*i*) supplying, constructing and maintaining pipes and other fittings for the supply of water to premises and works maintained by the committee ;

(*j*) supplying, constructing and maintaining receptacles, fittings, pipes, etc., for the use of private premises for recovery and conducting the sewage thereof into sewers under the control of the committee ;

(*k*) establishing and maintaining a farm or a factory for the disposal of sewage ;

(*l*) constructing and maintaining such roads, buildings and other Government works other than irrigation works and

(*m*) taking safety and health measures during fairs and exhibitions.

Municipal taxation may embrace the following items:—

(i) tax on buildings or lands ;

(ii) tax on persons exercising any profession or art or carrying on any trade ;

(iii) octroi tax on animals or goods brought within the municipal limits for sale, consumption or use ;

(iv) market dues on persons exposing goods for sale in any market or in any place belonging to or under the control of the State ;

(v) fees on the registration of cattle sold within the limits of the municipality ;

(vi) latrine or conservancy tax payable by the occupiers or owners ;

(vii) tax for the construction or maintenance of public latrines ;

(viii) water rate where water is supplied by the committee ;

(ix) lighting rate ;

(x) drainage tax ;

(xi) tax payable by the occupiers of buildings or lands ;

(xii) terminal tax and

(xiii) tax on pilgrims.

The rules regulating the levy of taxes in the case of municipal committees have to be sanctioned by the Commissioner, Nagpur Division, who has been given powers to subject the levy to such modifications not involving an increase of the amount to be imposed or to such conditions.

The State Government may raise objections to the levy of any particular tax which appears to be unfair in its incidence, or obnoxious to the interest of the general public. The State Government may sanction or refuse to sanction any proposal for levy of taxes or sanction them subject to such modifications as it may deem fit or return them to the committee for further consideration.

With a view to improving the financial position of the municipal committee, the State Government may compel the committee to impose any new tax, acting under the advise and directions of the Collector of the district and the Commissioner, Nagpur Division.

Many of these taxes are levied by municipalities. But the yield from these taxes does not enable them to meet all their expenditure. Their incomes, therefore, are supplemented by numerous grants made by Government which are both of a recurring and non-recurring type. Thus, grants are made by Government to municipal dispensaries and hospitals, to water-supply and drainage schemes, towards expenditure on measures to combat epidemics, towards payment of dearness allowance to staff, etc. These grants augment the municipal income substantially.

It is obligatory on every municipal committee to provide facilities for primary education within its jurisdiction. However, some municipal committees have provided facilities for higher education. In such cases expenses are re-imbursed by the State Government up to a certain percentage.

Control over the municipalities in Amravati district is exercised by the Collector of the district, the Commissioner, Nagpur Division and the State Government. The Collector has powers to examine the proceedings of any committee, inspect by himself or authorize any other person to inspect any immovable property occupied by a committee, or any work in progress under its direction, call for and inspect any document which may be in the possession or under the control of a committee, require a committee to furnish such statements, accounts and reports as required. The collector can suspend execution of an order or a resolution of a committee.

If and when a committee becomes incompetent to perform its duties, the State can appoint an Executive Officer for general improvement in the administration of the committee by suspending the functioning of the municipal committee.

In case of an emergency, the State Government may provide for the execution of any work or the performance of any act necessary for the service or safety of the public in case the municipal committee fails in its duty.

The State Government have powers to dissolve or supersede a municipal committee.

The accounts of municipal committees are audited at least once a year by the Local Audit Department of the Accountant-General. The Commissioner, Nagpur Division, on receipt of the report of the Examiner of Local Funds Accounts may disallow any item of expenditure which appears to him to be contrary to law and surcharge the same on the person making or authorising the making of the illegal payment. Appeal against the order may be made to the District Judge or to the State Government.

The Commissioner, Nagpur Division, has powers to sanction the rules pertaining to the levy of taxes and to remove on the recommendations of the Committee, any member, who comes under the rules of disqualification and misconduct.

ZILLA PARISHAD

ZILLA PARISHAD.

The villages in ancient India had always been autonomous *units and their characteristic feature in administration was the* prevalence of freedom and autonomy in governing the village institutions.

During the British Administration some efforts were made to revive the local self-governing institutions in India with a view to train the people in the administration of such institutions by giving them representation in these local bodies.

Vidarbha organised its gram panchayats and nyaya panchayats in 1946. After the reorganisation of the erstwhile State of Bombay, the Village Panchayats Act was passed in 1958 under which a village panchayat mandal was set up for every district. Along with this step, nyaya panchayats were also organized for groups of five or more village panchayats

With the attainment of freedom, India started efforts towards economic and social advancement and planned economy was accepted as the guiding principle. Community Development Programmes and National Extension Service were envisaged to improve the lot of the rural populace. But after a lapse of time the Government realised that the progress of rural development was not commensurate with the expectations and that this was mainly due to non-participation of the villagers in the implementation of such developmental schemes though a trend could be noticed among the masses for undertaking more developmental activities. To investigate into the causes behind such a state of affairs the Government appointed a Committee called 'Balwantrai Mehta Committee'.

The Balwantrai Mehta Committee visited the developmental activities, interviewed government officials and social workers. The report submitted by the Committee pointed out that the Government could not succeed in appealing and attracting leadership of the masses in participating in the Community Development and National Developmental schemes because 'the local self-governing institutions did not take any deep interest in such work. There was too much of government interference

in the working of the local bodies. The Committee found remedy in the decentralisation of power and responsibility at the lower level. It, therefore, suggested that the responsibility for such regional and local development work should be assigned to such local bodies at the district level with Government accepting the role of guiding, supervising and planning from a higher level, making available the required finances and so on. It recommended the formation of local committees on par with Block Development Committees to be named as Panchayat Samitis and at district level a district committee to be called as Zilla Parishad. Thus the Gram Panchayat, the Panchayat Samiti and the Zilla Parishad became the three responsible functionaries in the decentralization of administration. They are entrusted with the implementation of the developmental schemes.

Accordingly, the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act was passed in 1961 (No V of 1962). The Act provides for the establishment of Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis in rural areas and to assign to them the functions of a local government. The Act also envisages to entrust the execution of certain works and schemes in the State Five-Year Plans to such bodies. It also provides for the decentralisation of powers and functions with the definite object of promoting the development of democratic institutions.

Powers and Functions.

In what follows are described in brief the powers and functions of the President, the Vice-President and other official and non-official authorities of the Zilla Parishad:—

President.

The President—

(*a*) has to preside over the meetings of the Zilla Parishad :

(*b*) has access to the Zilla Parishad records ;

(*c*) discharges all the duties imposed, and exercises all the powers conferred on him by or under the Act :

(*d*) supervises the financial and executive administration and submits to the Parishad all problems connected therewith which require its orders and

(*e*) exercises administrative supervision and control over the Chief Executive Officer for securing implementation of resolutions or decisions of the Zilla Parishad or of the Standing Committee, or of any Subjects Committee, or of any Panchayat Samiti.

The President in cases of emergency directs the execution or suspension or stoppage of any work or the doing of any act which requires the sanction of the Zilla Parishad or any authority thereof, and immediate execution or doing of which, in his opinion, is necessary for the service or safety of the public, and may direct that the expense of executing such work or doing such act shall be paid from the District Fund:

Provided that, he shall report forthwith the action taken under this section, and the full reasons thereof to the Zilla

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Parishad, the Standing Committee and the appropriate Subjects Committee at their next meeting and the Zilla Parishad or the Committee may amend or annul the direction made by the President.

Vice-President.

The Vice-President,—

(*a*) in the absence of the President, presides over the meetings of the Zilla Parishad ;

(*b*) exercises such of the powers and performs such of the duties of the President as the President from time to time subject to the rules made by the State Government in this behalf, delegates to him by an order in writing ; and

(*c*) pending the election of a President, or during the absence of the President, exercises the powers and performs the duties of the President.

Chairman of Standing Committee or Subjects Committee.

Subject to the provisions of the Act, and the rules made thereunder by the State Government. the Chairman of the Standing Committee or a Subjects Committee—

(i) convenes, presides over and conducts the meetings of the Committee ; and

(ii) has access to the records of the Committee.

The Chairman of any such Committee, in relation to subjects allotted to the Committee can—

(i) call for any information, return, statement, accounts or report from any officer employed by or holding office under the Zilla Parishad or any servant thereof ; and

(ii) enter on and inspect any immovable property occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or any work or development scheme in progress undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or under its direction:

Provided that, the Chairman of the Standing Committee may, in relation to any subject allotted to any Subjects Committee, also exercise the powers under this clause ;

(iii) the Chairman of the Standing Committee can grant leave of absence for any period exceeding two months, but not exceeding four months, to any officer of Class I Service (other than the Chief Executive Officer) or Class II Service holding office under the Zilla Parishad.

Save as otherwise provided by or under this Act, the powers to be exercised and the duties to be discharged by the Standing Committee and each of the Subjects Committees, are such as may be prescribed by regulations ; but all subjects in relation to social welfare enumerated in the District List are allotted to the Standing Committee.

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Powers and Duties of the Executive Officers.

A Chief Executive Officer, a Deputy Chief Executive Officer, Block Development Officers, and the Heads of various departments of the Zilla Parishad are the executive officers of the Zilla Parishad. They are all gazetted officers and are transferable by the State Government to other districts. The Chief Executive Officer belongs to the cadre of Indian Administrative Service and his rank is equal to that of a Collector. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is an officer of the rank of the Deputy Collector. The Block Development Officers are Class II Officers while the Heads of the Departments are either Class I or Class II Officers. All the executive officers draw their pay and allowances from the consolidated fund of the State except travelling allowance (other than travelling allowance on transfer) which is drawn from the District Fund.

The Chief Executive Officer—

(i) lays down the duties of all the officers and servants of or holding office under the Zilla Parishad in accordance with the rules made by the State Government;

(ii) is entitled to call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant of, or holding office under the Zilla Parishad;

(iii) supervises and controls all the activities of the Zilla Parishad;

(iv) has power to possess papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Zilla Parishad and of its[1] committees (excluding Panchayat Samitis):

(v) draws and disburses money out of the District Fund:

(vi) exercises supervision and control over the officers and servants holding office under the Zilla Parishad in matters of executive administration and those relating to accounts and records of the Zilla Parishad;

(vii) is entitled to attend the meetings of the Zilla Parishad or any of its committees (including any Panchayat Samiti);

(viii) any of the powers conferred or duties or functions imposed upon or vested in the Chief Executive Officer by or under the Act, are also exercised, performed or discharged under the control of the Chief Executive Officer and subject to such conditions and limitations, if any, as he may think fit to lay down, by any officer or servant holding office under the Zilla Parishad to whom the Chief Executive Officer generally or specially empowers by order in writing: all such orders of the Chief Executive Officer are, however, to be laid before the President, the Standing Committee and the relevant Subject Committees for information:

(ix) assesses and gives his opinion confidentially every year on the work of the officers of Class I Service and Class II Service holding office under the Zilla Parishad: forwards them to such authorities as are prescribed by the State Government

[1]Sections 95 to 99 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, (1961).

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Powers and Duties of the Executive Officers.

and lays down the procedure for writing such reports about the work of officers and servants of Class III Service and Class IV service under the Zilla Parishad.

The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is the Secretary, *ex-officio,* of the Zilla Parishad, as well as the Standing Committee[1].

The Block Development Officer:—

(i) has the custody of all papers and documents connected with the proceedings of meetings of the Panchayat Samitis;

(ii) is the Secretary, *ex-officio,* of the Panchayat Samiti[2];

(iii) subject to the general orders of the Chief Executive Officer, grants leave of absence to officer or servant of Class III Service or of Class IV Service of the Zilla Parishad working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(iv) calls for any information, return, statement, account, report, or explanation from any of the officers or servants working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(v) draws and disburses money out of the grant or rents payable to the Panchayat Samiti under section 185; and

(vi) in relation to the works and development schemes to be undertaken from the block grants, exercises such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property, sale or transfer thereof, as are specified by the State Government.

Head of the Department:—

(i) Every head of the Department of the Zilla Parishad in respect of works and development schemes pertaining to his department, accords technical sanction thereto.

(ii) He assesses and gives his opinion confidentially every year on the work of officers of Class II Service working in his department and forwards them to the Chief Executive Officer.

(iii) The head of department, specified in this behalf, is the Secretary, *ex-officio,* of such Subject Committees as the Zilla Parishad may direct.

Organisation.

The Amravati Zilla Parishad was established on May 1, 1962. It is composed of 47 elected councillors, one co-opted woman councillor, 5 associate councillors (Chairmen of five federal co-operative societies) and 13 *ex-officio* councillors. The Chief Executive Officer is the administrative head of the Zilla Parishad.

As per the provisions contained in section 78 of the Zilla Parishads and Panchayat Samitis Act, 1961, the Zilla Parishad has appointed the following Committees, *viz.*, Standing Committee, Finance Committee, Works Committee, Agriculture Committee, Co-operative Committee, Education Committee and Health Committee.

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1. Sections 9 and 79 of the Act.

2. Section 57 of the Act.

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Organisation.

The General Administration department of the Zilla Parishad deals with non-technical matters such as establishment, parishad revenue, panchayats, social welfare and planning. The General Administration department is controlled and directed by the Standing Committee of the Zilla Parishad. The Deputy Chief Executive Officer is its Secretary and he heads the General Administration department. He is assisted by an Administrative Officer, a Revenue Officer, a Social Welfare Officer and two Area Organizers for tribal welfare. The Social Welfare section of the department is in charge of a District Social Welfare Officer, who is a Gazetted Officer. He is entrusted with the work of implementation of various schemes for the uplift and welfare of the backward classes. The amelioration of the backward classes is sought by granting them various educational and financial concessions and through cultural activities. A provision of Rs. 11,50,000 was made for social welfare schemes during 1962-63.

The Finance department of the Zilla Parishad is divided into four branches, *viz*., audit, budget, compilation and works. It is headed by the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer, who is a Class I Gazetted Officer. He is assisted by the Accounts Officer. The Finance department is controlled by the Finance Committee of the Zilla Parishad with the Chief Accounts and Finance Officer as its Secretary.

The expected income of the Zilla Parishad including extraordinary and debt heads as per the budget provisions for the year 1962-63 was Rs. 1,29,19,776 comprising local cess, Rs. 6,11,000; other taxes and fees, Rs. 1,02,000; interest, Rs. 2,000; amount to be received from the Government under Motor Vehicles Act, Rs. 3,800; income from fees from schools and other items, Rs. 28,779; income from fees from dispensaries and other items, Rs. 7,855; income from fairs, fares from the patients carried in UNICEF vans and other items, Rs. 26,500; income from land and crop protection implements, Rs. 47,808; veterinary dispensaries, Rs. 4,600; industries, Rs. 4,160 and income from Government grants, Rs. 1,19,67,887.

During the same period the expenditure including extraordinary and debt heads of the Zilla Parishad was estimated at Rs. 1,54,17,018. Thus the Zilla Parishad had an estimated net deficit of Rs. 24,97,242 for the year 1962-63.

The Agriculture department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Agricultural Development Officer who has to exercise technical and administrative control and to execute and supervise the departmental activities in the district. The department is controlled by the Agriculture Committee of the Zilla Parishad. Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the Agriculture department has made great progress in the programme for intensive and extensive cultivation for kharif and rabi crops especially for jowar, groundnut and cotton. The department has installed 29 pumps and has constructed 285 wells towards irrigation. Under the rural compost scheme, 1,000 pits have

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been dug. The department has so far distributed Ammonium Sulphate, 1,300 tons; Ammonium-Sulphate-Nitrate, 58 tons; Urea, 287 tons; Nitro Phosphate, 178 tons and Super Phosphate, 387 tons. Side grafting was done on 130 local mango trees with improved variety along with 345 *bor* trees. Spraying operations were completed on 1,027 acres of Citrus plantation in the district. Loans amounting to Rs. 50,000 were released to the cultivators for the plantation of new orchards. Under the rust resistant wheat scheme 402 quintals of wheat seed of HY65 variety was distributed. Under the green manuring programme 1,400 maunds of sann seed were distributed.

The whole district is now brought under the activities of the farmer's unions. About 1,584 villages in the district are covered by 1,142 farmer's unions with 57,771 members. Taluka farmer's unions have been established in all the six tahsils while the District Farmer's Union has also been organized at the district level.

The animal husbandry section controlled by the District Animal Husbandry Officer deals with the treatment of sick animals, and carries out vaccination against the various diseases of live-stock and breeding of animals.

The Industries and Co-operation department of the Zilla Parishad is in charge of a Co-operation and Industries Officer. The department is controlled and directed by the Co-operation Committee of the Zilla Parishad with Co-operation and Industries Officer as its Secretary. The department administers the extension and promotional activities of the co-operative societies as the regulatory functions have been retained by the Co-operative department in the State sector. The department also deals with the grant of loans to small-scale and cottage industries under State Aid to Industries Rules, 1961, grant of loans to educated unemployed, grant of financial assistance to *bona fide* craftsmen and backward class artisans, grant of subsidies to industrial co-operatives and loans to industrial societies.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, the department has registered 39 co-operative societies comprising sewa sahakari societies, 16; dairy societies, 8; industrial societies, 5; purchase and sale societies 3; labour contract societies 3; farming society, 1; housing society, 1 and crop protection societies, 2. The department has sanctioned Rs. 4,996 to fifteen industrial co-operative societies as management subsidy. An amount of Rs. 1,000 has been sanctioned to an industrial society under the handicraft scheme. An amount of Rs. 1,000 as loan and an equal amount of subsidy have been sanctioned to a society for tools and equipments.

The Parishad Education Officer heads the Education department of the Zilla Parishad. He also works as the Secretary of the Education Committee. The Education Committee of the Zilla Parishad guides and directs the working of the Education

department. Technical guidance and suggestions for improvement are made by the Director of Education, Maharashtra State.

ZILLA PARISHAD. Organisation.

The Zilla Parishad has under its control 1,089 boys' and 79 girls' primary schools, 28 and 4 Indian-English middle schools and 101 and 13 high schools and higher secondary schools. The department had spent up to December 31, 1962 Rs. 1,84,785 out of Rs. 3,89,810 allotted to it. The department also participates in the *gram shikshan mohim* aimed at imparting social education.

The Public Health Officer is the head of the Health department of the Zilla Parishad. He is also the Secretary of the Health Committee of the Zilla Parishad which guides and directs the functioning of the Health department. He is responsible for effecting measures to control epidemics, for maintaining the sanitation of the district and for all the medical and public health activities in the district except the civil hospital and the State controlled schemes. There are 11 primary health centres, 68 ayurvedic dispensaries, 19 allopathic dispensaries along with two sub-centre dispensaries of the primary health centres, seven family planning centres and six leprosy survey, education and treatment units in the district. The total budget estimates for the Health department, for the year 1962-63, amounted to Rs. 11,48,680.

The Works department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Parishad Executive Engineer who works as the Secretary of the Works Committee of the Zilla Parishad The Works Committee guides and controls the activities of the department. The department maintains roads transferred to it from the ex-Janpad Sabhas which measure 244.60 km. (151.91 miles). and from the Buildings and Communications department which measure 468.32 km. (291.00 miles). The department controls the public ferry services. It has also undertaken five minor irrigation schemes.

PANCHAYAT SAMITIS.

Under section 57 of the Act. a Panchayat Samiti is provided for every Block. Every Panchayat Samiti will consist of the following members:—

(a) all councillors who are elected on the Zilla Parishad from the electoral divisions in the Block,

(b) the co-opted councillor of the Zilla Parishad residing in the Block,

(c) the Chairmen of such Co-operative Societies conducting the business of purchase and sale of agricultural produce in the Block as nominated by Government (to be associate members),

(d) the Chairman of a Co-operative Society conducting business relating to agriculture (not being a society falling under 'c' above) in the Block, co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti (to be an associate member),

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PANCHAYAT SAMITIS.

(e) in case of non-availability of a woman member belonging to Scheduled Caste or Scheduled Tribe, one member who is a regular resident in the Block, to be co-opted by the Panchayat Samiti, and

(f) *Sarpanchas* elected by members of the Village Panchayats.

Chairman.

The term of the office of the Chairmen and members of the Panchayat Samitis is co-terminous[1].

The Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 300 per month with the facilities of free residential accommodation[2]. The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is paid an honorarium of Rs. 150 per month[2].

Powers and Functions of Chairman.

Subject to the provisions of the Act and the rules or regulations made thereunder:—

(1) the Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti—

(a) convenes, presides over and conducts meetings of the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) has access to the records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(c) exercises supervision and control over the officers and servants of or under the Zilla Parishad and working in the Block, in matters of execution or administration and the accounts and records of the Panchayat Samiti;

(d) in relation to works and development schemes to be undertaken from Block grants, exercises such powers of sanctioning acquisition of property or sale or transfer thereof as may be specified by the State Government.

(2) The Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is authorised—

(a) to call for any information, return, statement, account or report from any officer or servant working under the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) to enter on and inspect any immovable property in the Block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the Block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad, or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the Block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction.

Powers and Functions of Deputy Chairman.

(1) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti—

(a) in the absence of the Chairman, presides over the meeting of the Panchayat Samiti;

(b) exercises such of the powers and performs such of the duties of the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti, as the Chairman from time to time may, subject to the rules made by the State Government in that behalf, delegates to him by an order in writing; and

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1. Section 59 of the Zilla Parishad Act.

2. *Vide* Section 69 of the Act.

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PANCHAYAT SAMITIS.

Powers and Functions of Deputy Chairman.

(c) pending the election of the Chairman or during the absence of the Chairman, exercises the powers and performs the duties of the Chairman.

(2) The Deputy Chairman of a Panchayat Samiti is competent to enter on and inspect any immovable property in the Block occupied by the Zilla Parishad or any institution in the Block under the control and management of the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or any work or development scheme in progress in the Block undertaken by the Zilla Parishad or the Panchayat Samiti or under its direction and send a report of such inspection to the Chairman of the Panchayat Samiti.

There are in all 13 Panchayat Samitis in the district at Amravati, Bhatkuli, Nandgaon Kh., Chandur Rly., Tiosa, Morshi, Warud, Chandur Bazar, Achalpur, Daryapur, Anjangaon, Chikhaldara and Dharni..

The following statement gives the details about the membership of these Panchayat Samitis:—

PANCHAYAT SAMITIS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of Panchayat Samiti (1)	Elected Councillors (2)	Co-opted Councillors (3)	Chairmen of agricultural Co-operative Societies (4)	Women Councillors (if not included in (2), (3) and (4)) (5)	Elected Sarpanchas (6)
Amravati ..	4	..	2	1	8
Bhatkuli .	4	..	2	2	8
Nandgaon Kh.	3	..	2	1	6
Achalpur ..	3	.	2	2	6
Chandur Bazar	4	..	2	2	8
Daryapur ..	3	..	2	2	6
Anjangaon ..	4	1	2	1	6
Chandur Rly.	5	..	2	2	10
Tiosa	5	..	2	2	10
Morshi ..	4*	..	2	2	8
Warud ..	4	..	2	2	8
Chikhaldara ..	2	..	2	2	4
Dharni ..	2*	..	2	2	4

*One seat vacant.

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VILLAGE PANCHAYATS.

The village panchayats are the last but not the least in importance in the ladder of Government machinery and administration. From the early times, the villages in India formed units which were self-sufficient and administered by the gram panchayats. They were so much self-sufficient and self-governed that they could withstand the onslaughts of Muslim and other foreign depredations. Centralization of power that emerged during the British regime resulted into political, social and economic disruption of the rural areas. The freedom struggle that started in the country during the 20th Century forced the alien power to grant at least the restricted local government so as to keep away the popular discontent. Thus an Act was passed in 1915, which was implemented in 1920 by establishing a few village panchayats in the district, their supervision having been entrusted to the District Councils then in existence.

The Village Panchayats Act of 1946 envisaged the establishment of village panchayats in villages, the population of which was above 1,000, above 500 and below 500 in three stages. Within one year, the phased programme was completed except a few villages in the last stage.

Under the Act, panchayats with membership of between 5 and 15 were established on the basis of adult franchise. They were to elect a *Sarpanch* and the *Up-sarpanch* from amongst themselves. The revenue *patil* of the village was to be an *ex-officio* member of the panchayat.

The Act divided the duties of the village panchayats into obligatory and optional. The obligatory duties of the village panchayats included sanitary and health measures, construction and repairs of roads, maintenance of birth and death registers, provision of water-supply, and undertaking such other works meant for public convenience while the optional duties involved construction and maintenance of *dharmashalas*, finding ways and means for development of agriculture, co-operation, veterinary services etc. The gram panchayats were to undertake the optional functions provided their funds permitted them to do so.

The incomes of the village panchayats were derived from various sources such as cesses, house tax, sanitary tax, and other taxes as also grants from janapad sabhas and the Government.

A few gram panchayats were entrusted with the performance of judicial functions. They were authorised to impose fine up to Rs. 20 and conduct civil suits of the value of not more than Rs. 100. The appeals upon the decisions of the gram panchayat were heard by the District and Sessions Judge. The panchayats were authorised to appoint the Secretaries and the other necessary staff.

After the reorganisation of States, the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958, was made applicable to the district.

Under this Act, which was put into force in the district from June 1, 1959, females were represented in the panchayats. The

membership of revenue *patils* who were *ex-officio* members of the panchayats was abrogated. The division of the duties of village panchayats as obligatory and optional was annulled and the panchayats were made responsible for the all round development of villages. This Act has given wide powers to village panchayats.

The special features of the new Act are—

(*a*) reservation of two seats for women in every village panchayat,

(*b*) constitution of gram sabhas of all adult residents of the village,

(*c*) establishment of district village panchayat *mandal* for every district (now defunct since the formation of the Zilla Parishad),

(*d*) appointment of the secretary of a village panchayat as a full-fledged Government servant,

(*e*) training of the village panchayat secretary to be undertaken at its own cost,

(*f*) making of the work of collection of land revenue and maintenance of land records. a responsibility of village panchayats,

(g) payments to village panchayats of grants-in-aid of not less than 25 per cent of the land revenue collected in villages, and

(*h*) constitution of group nyaya panchayats for five or more villages with fairly wide judicial powers, both civil and criminal.

A District Village Panchayat Officer was appointed to control the administration of village panchayats in the district. He assists the Collector in his functions and duties in respect of administration of village panchayats with the aid of District Auditor, five Sub-Auditors and other necessary staff. Besides, two Social Welfare Inspectors were allotted to the district to work as supervisory staff.

With the formation of the Zilla Parishad the district panchayat mandals were abolished and the Village Panchayat Officer now works with the Zilla Parishad. The control of the village panchayats now vests in the Zilla Parishad and is exercised through the Panchayat Samitis.

All the villages in the district are covered by 724 village panchayats of which 508 are independent village panchayats while the remaining 216 are group village panchayats. The 81 nyaya panchayats in the district established under the Central Provinces and Berar Act of 1946 now function under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958. During 1959-60, ten camps of a duration of three to five days were conducted with a view to giving to the non-official authorities of the village panchayats training in the administration of village panchayats through seminars and symposiums.

CHAPTER 14.

Local Self-Government.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION.

TOWN PLANNING AND VALUATION DEPARTMENT

The Maharashtra State has an independent Town Planning and Valuation department under the administrative control of the Urban Development and Public Health department. This department came into existence in 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head. The department principally deals with 'Town Planning' and 'Valuation of Real Property'.

Duties and Functions.

The duties and functions of the department could be grouped under three categories, *viz*., (1) town planning, (2) valuation and (3) other miscellaneous duties.

Under town planning the functions pertain to—

1. educating, advising and assisting the municipalities in the preparation of development plans of town planning schemes,

2. performing the duties of the Town Planning Officers when so appointed by Government to scrutinise building permission cases, tendering advice to the Board of Appeal and drawing up the final schemes,

3. issuing certificates of tenure and title to the owners of lands included in the town planning schemes,

4. advising and preparing town development, improvement, extension and slum clearance schemes under the municipal acts,

5. advising Government on all matters regarding town and country planning including legislation in that respect,

6. preparing development schemes or layouts of lands belonging to Government and belonging to co-operative housing societies and private bodies with the sanction of Government,

7. advising officers concerned in respect of village planning and preparation of layouts for model villages, etc.,

8. advising Government on housing, slum clearance, regional planning and prevention of ribbon development including legislation in that respect,

9. preparing type designs for the housing of the middle and poorer classes including Harijans, and

10. scrutinising miscellaneous building permission cases and layouts received from the Collectors and recommending suitable building regulations for adoption in the areas concerned

The duties of the department in respect of valuation are as under:—

1. valuation of agricultural and non-agricultural lands and properties belonging to the Government,

2. valuation for the purposes of fixing standard table of ground rents and land values in respect of lands in cantonments,

3. scrutiny of awards of compensation (if and when received from Government),

4. supplying trained technical assistants to act as Special Land Acquisition Officers in important towns where the land acquisition work is of a very important and responsible nature,

5. giving expert evidence when called upon to do so in the District Courts and the High Court when appeals are lodged against awards of compensation under the Land Acquisition Act, and

6. undertaking valuation work on behalf of railways and other departments of Central Government and private bodies with the sanction of Government on payment of fees, etc.

The miscellaneous duties of the department are—

1. to advise the various heads of departments of Government in the selection of sites required for public purpose,

2. to see that all town planning schemes or layout schemes sanctioned by Government are properly executed within a reasonable period or periods fixed in the schemes, and

3 to advise Government as regards interpretation, amendment or addition to the Bombay Town Planning Act or Rules made thereunder.

The department, as stated above, was started in the year 1914 with the Consulting Surveyor to Government as its head. Subsequently, the strength of the department was increased by the addition of one Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government, one Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor to Government and two Senior Assistants with the requisite staff. With the increase in the activities of the department these Assistants were posted at prominent places in the State to attend to the work of Town and Country Planning. The headquarters of the department is at Poona and the branch offices are located at Bombay, Kolhapur, Nagpur, Amravati, Aurangabad, Kalyan and Sholapur. Some of the officers have been appointed to function as Land Acquisition Officers. There are two full-time Special Land Acquisition Officers at Poona and one full-time Land Acquisition Officer at Bombay in addition to two part-time Land Acquisition Officers at Bombay and Poona.

The new Act incorporates the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1915. It also makes it compulsory for every local authority (barring Village Panchayats) to prepare a development plan for the entire area within its jurisdiction. The development plan aims at the improvement of existing congested *gaothan* portion of the town and contains proposals in respect of the outlying open areas. The proposals of the development plan could be implemented by the preparation of statutory town planning schemes. In preparing town planning schemes, it is possible to ignore the existing plot boundaries. In designing the layout, the existing holdings can be reconstituted and made

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subservient to the plan, and building plots of good shape and frontage can be allotted to owners of lands ill-shaped for building purposes and without access. It is also possible to recover the cost of a scheme from the owners benefited to the extent of 50 per cent of the increase in the value of the land estimated to accrue by carrying out the works contemplated in the scheme. When a draft town planning scheme prepared by a local authority in consultation with the owners is sanctioned a Town Planning Officer is appointed. His duties are to hear each owner individually, consider his objections or proposals and make suitable adjustments or amendments in the draft scheme if found necessary.

Most of the local authorities have no technical staff of their own to prepare the development plans. It was, therefore, decided that this department should prepare the development plans on behalf of local authorities under the provisions of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954. Accordingly, a scheme for the preparation of development plans was provided in the Second Five-Year Plan and additional staff was sanctioned for that purpose.

Consequent upon the re-organisation of States, a branch office of the department at Amravati looks after the work in respect of the four districts of Amravati, Akola, Buldhana and Yeotmal. The Deputy Assistant Consulting Surveyor in the Government is the head of this office. At present, the Central Provinces and Berar Town Planning Act, 1948 and the Central Provinces and Berar Regulations of Uses of Land Act are applicable to this area. It is proposed to extend the application of the Bombay Town Planning Act, 1954, to the above region by replacing the Central Provinces and Berar Town Planning Act, 1948.

There are 13 town municipalities in this district excluding Chikhaldara town. Of these six are *nazul* settled towns; the master plans for five of them, *viz.*, Amravati, Paratwada, Achalpur, Badnera and Dhamangaon have been prepared. Chikhaldara which is a hill station in the district has a nominated municipal committee consisting mostly of *ex-officio* members. A development plan for the hill station has also been prepared. Besides, the department gives advice to the Collector on questions of grant of *nazul* sites to Government departments, public bodies or private persons. The office is also required to give opinion in cases of conversion of lands for non-agricultural use and has to scrutinize the layouts. Every year a number of layouts are scrutinized and opinions are given in many cases of conversion A number of layouts in *nazul* and private lands under acquisition for various purposes including industrial estates, housing schemes, etc., have been prepared. Layouts for developing private fields without recourse, to the Town Planning Act are also prepared by this office when specifically required by private parties.

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CHAPTER 15.

Education and Culture.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND.

Though no precise and exact records about the centres of learning in ancient, mediaeval and early modern times are available, there was in existence some sort of a system of imparting education to the local populace and that might have been education by heritage. Prior to the Assignment there were private schools wherein Sanskrit was taught to Brahman boys and Marathi to other Hindus. The scheduled castes and the tribes were not allowed to enter any schools. The Arabic of Kuran, Persian and Urdu was taught by the *Munshis*. Ellichpur (Achalpur) was the only town with historical and cultural background where the traditional Muhammedan culture was maintained. By 1861, when education became the concern of the State, the teaching profession was looked upon as derogatory. Thus it never got beyond mere rudiments with most of the pupils. Nevertheless, quite a few good writers and accountants raised by the few indigenous schools or by private household tuition did exist. The village writers, several literary *Deshmukhs* and *Patels* among the Hindus, many well-to-do traders, the *Kazis* and other Muhammedans represented the results of private education[1]

Beginning of Western Education and Pioneering Work.

The beginning of western education dates back to 1861 when scattered schools were organised by the Government. In 1866 the Education Department was introduced in the district. On November 1, 1866 a high school was established at Amravati which lately came to be known as Hindu High School. Also established were seven Anglo-vernacular high schools in the district. In many of the District Board Schools, English classes supported by voluntary contributions were conducted. A small Government industrial school was merged with the Victoria Technical Institute in 1866[1]. Two schools, one at Tiwsa and the other at Hordarganja started by wealthy merchants and one school at Kakada, held in a mosque imparted training of a religious character. The ones at Tiwsa and Hordarganja were conducted for the teaching of Sanskrit while the one at Kakada engaged itself in the inculcation of *Kuran*. Two unaided schools were conducted by the missionary bodies.

Growth of Literacy.

Though no figures of literacy are available for Amravati district, the trend in the growth can be traced from the census

[1] Based on Amravati District Gazetteer (1911), p. 336.

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Growth of Literacy.

reports of the Central Provinces and from the figures given therein about the Maratha Plain Division. The census report of 1911 gives the figures of literates as 74 per mille for the Maratha Plain Division stating that it was highest in Amravati along with Nagpur and Wardha. The census report states that in almost all cases the proportion of literates in the age period "20 and over" was smaller than that in the age period "15—20". The census report also states that it was due to the fact that "Many who go through the primary schools in youth. lapse into complete illiteracy at a later age, this being specially the case in the cultivating classes who have little stimulus to keep up their education after leaving schools". According to the census report there was on an average one literate female to 21 literate males, the proportion of literate women to the total number of women being 3 per mille throughout the Central Provinces. Between 1901 and 1911 the number of girls' schools throughout the Province increased from 238 to 343 with a corresponding increase in the number of girls receiving education from 14,260 to 28,509. The figures from 1921 census report for the Central Provinces representing Maratha Plains give 177 males per mille and 17 females per mille as literates. The 1931 census report states that during the 50 years from 1881 the literacy of males has increased by 140 per cent while the proportion of female literacy was 11 times as much as it was in 1881. The survey conducted on 10 per cent sample basis along with 1951 census showed that 25,165 persons including 19,785 males and 5,380 females were literates as against 77,472 illiterates inclusive of 32,492 males and 44,980 females out of a total sample of 1,02,637 including 52,277 males and 50,360 females. The report further shows the total number of literates at 2,28,261 including 1,72,554 males and 55,707 females. The following table shows the classification of literates in different degrees.

Table showing classification of literates in different degrees according to 1951 census.

	Persons	Males	Females
All educational standards	.. 2,66,168	1,99,779	66,389
Literate	.. 2,28,261	1,72,554	55,707
Middle School	.. 17,643	15,109	2,534
Matriculate or S. L. C. Higher Secondary	.. 5,853	5,132	721
Intermediates in Arts or Science	.. 1,285	1,143	142
Total Degrees or Diplomas	.. 13,126	5,841	7,285
Graduates in Arts or Science	.. 956	832	124
Post Graduates in Arts or Science	.. 280	269	11

	Persons	Males	Females
Teaching ..	606	512	94
Engineering ..	127	126	1
Agriculture ..	93	93	..
Veterinary ..	68	68	..
Commerce ..	156	156	..
Legal ..	705	699	6
Medical ..	599	579	20
Others ..	9,536	2,507	7,029

At present the literacy percentage of the district stands at 33.6 as against 29.7 for the State of Maharashtra.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Prior to the establishment of the Zilla Parishad education was under State control and was administered by the Director of Education of the State. Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad, Education has come under dual control, viz., that of the State Government and the Zilla Parishad. The Deputy Director of Education, Vidarbha, Nagpur, is the officer in charge of the State sector in the Division.

The Education Department of the Zilla Parishad is headed by the Parishad Education Officer who also acts as the Secretary to the Education Committee of the Zilla Parishad. He is a Class I Gazetted Officer of the Maharashtra Education Service. He supervises, controls and guides the work of his subordinates. He has powers to inspect and release grants to primary and secondary schools in the district. He grants recognition to primary, middle and secondary schools. He is assisted in his work by one Deputy Education Officer, belonging to the Class II cadre of the State service. The work of the inspection of secondary schools is done by the Assistant Deputy Education Officers. Under the Deputy Education Officer are 25 Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors and 26 Social Education Organisers.

All girls' schools, whether primary or secondary, come within the purview of the Zilla Parishad. The Assistant Deputy Education Officers of the Zilla Parishad have to visit and inspect the primary schools. The secondary schools are inspected by the Inspectors of Schools. The report of inspection in both the cases is forwarded to the Education Department in the State sector.

The municipalities have been given certain powers under the Local Self-Government Acts of the former States of Central Provinces and Madhya Pradesh. Accordingly recognition of schools in the municipal areas and allotment of grants from the State revenue are the duties of the municipality.

The education at school level is divided into the following six categories: —

Pre-primary schools.

Primary Schools: From Standards I to IV.

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Indian Middle Schools: From Standards V to VII (Class VIII is attached to these schools under the scheme to relieve educated unemployment. English is optional in these schools).

Indian-English Middle School: From Standards V to VIII with English compulsory.

Higher Secondary Schools: From Standards IX to XI with two diversified groups.

Multipurpose Higher Secondary Schools: From Standards IX to XI with more than two diversified groups.

Basic Training Colleges for primary school teachers, Secondary Teachers Training Institutes and institutes leading to Diploma in Teaching for Indian-English middle school teachers and Post-graduate degree course in training for high school and higher secondary school teachers form the main training institutions.

Pre-Primary Education.

Though of comparatively recent origin, importance of pre-primary education is now felt even in the rural areas of the district. It helps in finding out the aptitude of the children and inculcates good habits among the pupils. In 1962, there were 35 such pre-primary schools in the district wherein 1,600 children, 850 boys and 750 girls, were learning.

Primary Education.

In 1963 there were 1,147 primary schools in the district comprising 49 senior basic schools, 18 junior basic schools, 270 single teacher schools, 638 other primary schools and 172 Indian middle schools. There were 1,38,442 pupils in these schools of whom 84,231 were boys and 54,211 were girls. There were 4,615 teachers in these schools of whom 3,824 were males and the remaining 791 were females. Of the male teachers 2,714 were trained and 1,110 were untrained. Of the female teachers 637 were trained and 154 were untrained.

Secondary Education.

During the same year there were 102 high schools for boys in the district of which three were under the control of the Zilla Parishad, one was under the Municipal Committee and 98 were private-aided schools including 11 exclusively for girls. The number of students stood at 24,294 inclusive of 17,358 boys and 6,936 girls. These schools had 1,190 teachers of whom 1,010 were males and 180 were females.

There were nine higher secondary schools in the district. Of these one each was controlled by the Zilla Parishad and the Municipal Committee, the remaining seven being private-aided schools. Of the private-aided schools, two were exclusively for girls. These schools provided education to 6,986 students (4,222 boys and 2,764 girls). There were 210 male teachers and 49 female teachers in these schools.

Besides ordinary high schools and higher secondary schools, there were multipurpose higher secondary schools in the district. These numbered nine. Of these two were controlled by the Zilla Parishad and the remaining seven were private-aided schools. These schools had on their roll 5,760 boys and 1,419 girls making a total of 7,179. There were 317 teachers including 269 male teachers and 48 female teachers.

GENERAL EDUCATION.

Secondary Education.

Secondary education is mostly conducted by private bodies on grant-in-aid basis. The staff in these schools is governed under the School Code. The need for secondary schools in the rural areas is met only up to 60 per cent. These schools are not properly provided with buildings, trained staff, equipment and finances. The Government have been extending assistance to these institutions by way of grants towards construction of buildings, acquisition of land for buildings and playgrounds and purchase of necessary equipment. Inadequacy of training facilities coupled with general unwillingness of the trained staff to serve in rural areas creates obstacles in the administration of these schools in rural areas.

HIGHER EDUCATION.

The facility for higher education in the district is provided for by Shivaji College of Arts, Science, Agriculture, Commerce and Law, Amravati; Vidarbha Mahavidyalaya, Amravati; Shri Shivaji College, Daryapur; Mahatma Phule Mahavidyalaya, Warud; Raj Mahavidyalaya, Amravati and Ayurvedic Medical College, Amravati alongwith Government Polytechnic Institute, Amravati and the Rural Institute, Amravati. All these colleges are affiliated to the Nagpur University.

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

All technical and industrial schools and industrial training institutes and courses leading upto diploma standard excluding those coming under the jurisdiction of the University are controlled by the Department of Technical Education, Bombay. The Government have appointed a State Council of Technical Education which advises and makes recommendations in respect of technical and industrial institutions and courses leading upto the Diploma standard. The State Council for Training in Vocational Trades carries out the policies of the National Council with regard to the award of National Trade Certificates in engineering, buildings and leather trades and other similar trades. The Deputy Director of Technical Education, Nagpur, responsible to the Director of Technical Education, Maharashtra State, Bombay, looks after the activities of the department in the district. The Director of Technical Education conducts annual examinations in the courses approved by the State Council of Technical Education and awards certificates or diplomas to the successful candidates.

Established in June 1955 by the then Madhya Pradesh Government on the recommendations of the Western Regional Committee of All India Council of Technical Education, the Government Polytechnic at Amravati came under the control of the Department of Technical Education, Bombay after the reorganization of States, that is, from November 1, 1956. The institution conducts diploma courses in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering. Those who pass at least the S. S. C. or its equivalent examinations are admitted to the course.

Formerly known as Technical High School, the Kala Niketan was established in 1952. The first batch of students from the institute appeared for S. S. C. (Technical) Certificate Examination in 1956 conducted by the Vidarbha Board of

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Secondary Education, Nagpur. At present the school functions as a higher secondary school with a technical bias.

The Government Vocational High School was established at Amravati in 1907 by a private body. It was taken over by the Government in 1952 and was named as Industrial School, Amravati. It was converted into a vocational high school by the then Government of Madhya Pradesh on October 1, 1954. Those who pass minimum VII standard examination are eligible for admission. The following trades are conducted at the institute:—

Trade		*Number of Seats.*
Carpentry	...	60
Metal work	...	45
Leather work	...	30
Tailoring	...	20
Electrician	...	30

Each course is of four years duration The successful candidates are awarded H. S. C. (Vocational) by the Vidarbha Board of Secondary Education, Nagpur. The students admitted for the courses, except for tailoring, are paid stipend at the rate of Rs. 20 per month while those students admitted for tailoring have to pay a tuition fee of rupees three per month.

The industrial training institutes attached to the Kala Niketan and the Government Vocational High School come under the State Council for Training in Vocational Trades. The institute attached to the Kala Niketan was established in February 1959. At present the following courses are conducted at the institute:—

Course		*Number of Seats.*
Draftsman (Mechanic)	...	16
Electrician	...	16
Electroplater	...	16
Fitter	..	32
Motor Mechanic	...	16
Welder	...	12
I. C. E. Mechanic	...	16
Machinist	...	12
Turner	...	12

The successful candidates are awarded National Trade Certificates by the Government of India. The deserving students, to the extent of 33 per cent of the total strength, are awarded scholarship at the rate of Rs. 25 per month.

The Industrial Training Institute of the Government Vocational High School, Amravati, was established on November 1, 1959. The following crafts are taught at the institute at present:—

Trade		*Number of Seats.*
Blacksmithy	...	**16**
Carpentry	...	**16**
Draftsmanship (Mechanical)	...	**16**

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Trade	*Number of Seats.*
Machinist	... 12
Motor Mechanism	... 16
Radio Mechanism	... 16
Moulding	... 16
Painting and Decorating	... 16
Turnery	... 12
Welding	... 8
Pattern Making	... 16

Those who have passed at least the S. S. C. Examination with mathematics and science are entitled for admission to the certificate course for draftsmanship. For other courses, the entrants must have passed at least ninth standard examination.

Besides the above, there is a Post-Graduate Basic Training College at Amravati along with Government diploma training institutes for men and women at Amravati. An Ayurvedic Medical College has also been established at Amravati.

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

Marathi is the medium of instruction in the majority of primary and secondary schools in the district. However, there are many schools, primary as well as secondary, imparting instruction in Urdu, Hindi and Gujarati media catering to the needs of the population whose mother-tongue is other than Marathi. The district has a fair number of Korku-speaking population but the language cannot be introduced or taught as it has no script of its own.

SCHOOLS FOR MUSIC, DANCING, ETC.

The Vidarbha Sangeet Vidyalaya, Amravati, is a private-aided institution under the direct control of the Social Welfare Department of the Amravati Zilla Parishad. It conducts courses of five years' duration leading to Sangeet Visharad and 7 years' period leading to Sangeet Alankar.

The Durga Sangeet Vidyalaya, Daryapur also conducts courses leading to Sangeet Visharad and Sangeet Alankar.

ORIENTAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

Ramchand Bhagchand Sanskrit Pathshala, Dhamangaon, Smt. Jadhaobai Sanskrit Pathshala, Amravati and Shriman Shrivallabhji and Smt. Dhannibai Chandak Trust Sanskrit Pathshala, Amravati, conduct courses leading to Prathama, Purva Madhyama, Uttar Madhyama and Shastri These are courses in Sanskrit and in ancient Indian philosophical concepts. They are taught through the media of Sanskrit, Marathi and Hindi.

INSTITUTIONS FOR DEAF, DUMB, BLIND, ETC.

There is no such institution in the district providing education to deaf, dumb, blind, etc. The only primary and Indian-English middle school for lepers in the district is situated at Tapowan near Amravati.

SOCIAL EDUCATION.

A social education scheme was introduced in 1948-49 by the former Madhya Pradesh not merely to literate the population but to impart education regarding health, agriculture, etc., with a view to achieving all-sided development of the villagers. The Government of Maharashtra have introduced *gram shikshan mohim* so as to achieve cent per cent literacy in selected villages. The villages which achieve cent per cent literacy are honoured by *gram gaurao samarambha*. During 1962-63, 137

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villages were selected under the *gram shikshan mohim* where 837 males and 610 females were made literates. The *gram gaurao samarambha* was performed at Chikhalsawangi, Kothora, Amdabad, Chikhali, Kotha, Isapur, Akhatwada, Motha and Naigaon where an aggregate of 517 males and 579 femals had attained literacy. During 1959, Rs. 14,377 were spent on social education classes. The corresponding figure for 1960-61 was Rs. 22,245.

CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES.

There are many societies or social institutions that take part in the cultural activities in the district. The Music Circle, Amravati, arranges musical concerts by renowned artists at the time of Gokul Ashtami.

The dramatic activities mainly centre round Naval Natya Vihar along with Ram Ganesh Kala Mandir and Kala Sahakar. The Naval Natya Vihar, Amravati was awarded prize for staging 'Vairi' which was adjudged best during the Maharashtra Rajya Natya Mahotsava in 1958 and for 'Ghat Vajate Tethe Pahate' during 1960.

The Gurukunja Ashram, Mozri, pioneered by the *Rashtra Sant* Tukadoji Maharaj plays a vital role in conducting some hospitals and educational activities in the district. It also manages an Ayurvedic College.

Only one scientific society, known as the Vidnyan Mandir is located in the premises of Shri Shivaji Lok Vidyapith, Amravati. It has been established with a view to explaining and making the villagers familiar with the scientific principles, in regard to their approach to the rural life such as crop protection, low cost housing, village sanitation, etc. Annual science talent search competitions comprising essay competitions, model competition, etc., are held by the society every year.

The Srikrishna Theosophical Lodge, Amravati, is a branch of the Theosophical Society at Adyar in Madras State. It is established with a view to creating a sense of brother-hood and humanity among the citizens, to conducting comparative study of philosophy, religion and science and to investigate into the secret powers of human beings and nature. Regular discourses are held four times a day attended on an average by thirty persons including members and sympathisers. The Lodge maintains a library where about 5,000 books on theosophy, philosophy and religion are available.

LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS AND BOTANICAL GARDENS.

The district library was established in 1956. The books are provided through 467 sub-centres, the benefit of which has been taken so far by 24,229 persons. On district and village libraries an amount of Rs. 22,764 has been spent during 1960-61. Besides the district library, there are 14 private libraries in the district. Prominent among them are the old Achalpur library established in 1866 and the City Library at Amravati established in 1867.

There is neither a museum nor are there any public botanical or zoological gardens in the district. The small botanical garden attached to the Vidarbha Maha Vidyalaya, Amravati, is the only botanical garden in the district.

CHAPTER 16—MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

CHAPTER 16.

Medical and Public Health Services.

EARLY TIMES.

FOR A PRETTY LONG TIME THE INCIDENCE OF DISEASES WAS ASCRIBED TO EVIL INFLUENCES. Propitiating the evil spirit was taken to be one of the ways of curing a disease. It was not that no form of medical help was available. The vaidus, the village priest, the old people, the vaidyas and hakims often treated the patients by the use of herbs and indigenous antidotes. The skill of the vaidyas, whose treatment was based upon the ayurvedic system of medicine, was a combination of the inherited knowledge and the practical experience. The line of treatment did not differ much in case of the vaidyas and the hakims. Both had a limited knowledge of anatomy.

The vaidus who moved from place to place had a good knowledge of rare herbs with rich mineral and medicinal properties. They mainly used to treat domestic animals in the absence of specialised veterinary practitioners. Though the maternity facilities were conspicuous by their absence, the advice of the elderly ladies in the family was always at the disposal of the expectant mothers.

MODERN TIMES.

The old Amravati District Gazetteer gives the following account about health matters. "In 1906 the number of out-door patients treated in the district was 109,776 and in 1907, 95,113; such treatment may, therefore, be looked upon as fairly popular. Indoor patients in these two years have numbered 1,371 and 1,183; and when Government servants, paupers and cases brought in by the police are deducted from these totals, it cannot be said that the hospital wards except perhaps that at Amravati, are used by the public to any great extent. Probably the cause of it is the publicity of the ward system; for when in India a man comes to hospital, he generally brings his wife with him. The extension of family wards, therefore, is the policy now being pursued."

The Amravati district which formed part of the Maratha plain division of the ex-Hyderabad State suffered from influenza epidemic during 1918—1920. However, the district recovered from the epidemic quickly by 1920.

HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

The following table[1] shows the medical facilities available in Amravati district during 1955-56 and 1960-61.

[1] Reproduced from Socio-Economic Review 1960-61.

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HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES.

MEDICAL FACILITIES IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

	1955-56	1960-61
Number of Hospitals	18	19
Number of Maternity Homes	1	1
Number of Dispensaries	18	22
Number of Rural Health Centres	..	11
Number of Doctors	51	58
Number of Nurses (including Midwives)	100	162
Number of Beds—		
Males	219	230
Females	116	295
Children	..	57
Indoor Patients—		
Males	3,683	6,387
Females	4,379	9,427
Children	2,644	7,144
Outdoor Patients—		
Males	194,136	279,168
Females	135,621	180,040
Children	232,111	276,128

According to 1961 census there were 1,120 physicians; surgeons and dentists including 208 allopathic physicians and surgeons, 393 ayurvedic physicians, 152 homoeopathic physicians and 182 other physicians in the district. Besides, there were 1,062 nurses, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians inclusive of 231 nurses and 257 midwives and health visitors.

COMMON DISEASES.

The diseases noted to have been common in the district are malaria, leprosy alongwith cholera, small-pox, diarrhoea and other fevers and respiratory diseases. Tuberculosis is also fairly wide spread in the district.

Malaria as an endemic disease is prevalent in Amravati district as also in parts of the country. Due to heavy rains and existence of conditions which help breeding of mosquitos, Chikhaldara and Melghat regions of the district are badly infested with malaria. In 1960-61, 12,560 cases of malaria were treated in the rural dispensaries of the district as against the figure of 28,177 in 1953-54.

Leprosy is also prevalent in the district The leprosy treatment units treat nearly 15,000 indoor and out-door patients every year.

The following table shows deaths due to different diseases in Amravati district during 1951—1960.

Deaths due to different diseases in Amravati district.[1]

[1]Table taken from Socio-Economic Review, Amravati district, 1960-61.

COMMON DISEASES.

Year (1)	Cholera (2)	Small-pox (3)	Fevers (4)	Diarrhoea (5)	Respiratory diseases (6)	Other (7)	Total (8)
1951	..	110	736	24	86	1,496	2,452
1952	..	..	501	226	61	1,276	2,064
1953	29	9	706	241	40	1,109	2,134
1954	1	..	377	124	58	927	1,487
1955	..	29	652	134	72	1,051	1,938
1956	13	109	999	468	265	1,561	3,415
1957	52	80	1,332	599	345	2,036	4,444
1958	179	40	2,170	849	555	2,388	6,181
1959	..	19	2,453	658	446	2,824	6,400
1960	..	37	2,407	564	510	3,271	6,789

The following table gives the number of deaths due to different causes in Amravati district in the year 1957:—

Cause (1)	Deaths (2)	Cause (3)	Deaths (4)
Cholera	9	Injuries	150
Small-pox	89	Suicide	1
Fevers	3,239	Wounds or Accidents .	140
Dysentery and Diarrhoea ..	1,264	Snake bite	7
		Rabies	2
Respiratory Diseases ..	1,374	All other causes	4,676

During 1957, Amravati alongwith other districts of the State was more or less affected by Influenza. Though the disease was wide spread, the epidemic was mild and not virulent.

INFANT MORTALITY.

In 1957, 567 still births were registered in Amravati district. The following table shows the incidence of infant[1] mortality in the district: -

	Males (1)	Females (2)	Total (3)
Within 24 hours	.	..	..
Above 24 hours to end of first week	316	268	584
Above one week to end of first month	220	176	396
Between 1 month and 3 months	.	..	..
Between 3 months and 6 months .. .	282	254	536
Between 6 months and a year	274	240	514

[1] Infant is taken to be a child up to one year of age.

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INFANT MORTALITY.

The following table gives the rate of infant mortality in Amravati district from 1958-59 to 1960-61:—

Year	Infant Mortality
1958-59	131—34
1959-60	104—16
1960-61	74—79

MALARIA CONTROL.

The National Malaria Control scheme is in operation in Amravati district also. The success of the operation could be seen in the fall in the percentage of malaria cases to all fevers from 12.9% in 1953-54 to 2.8% in 1960-61. Under the anti-malaria campaign palludrin, quinine, etc., which are regarded as effective against malaria are distributed free in the rural areas of the district. D.D.T. spraying is also resorted to combat the disease. In Amravati, Akola and Buldhana districts, D.D.T. has been sprayed in 2,33,006 houses. In Amravati district, the number of people covered under National Malaria Control Programme was 8,25,950. On examination of 10,423 children in the district, 1,360 were found with enlarged spleen giving 13.5 as the spleen rate for the whole district.

The following table gives the number of malaria cases treated in the rural dispensaries in Amravati district from 1953-54 to 1960-61:—

Number of Malaria cases treated in the rural[1] dispensaries in Amravati District.

Year (1)	All Cases (2)	Malaria Cases (3)	Percentage (4)
1953-54	1,92,080	28,177	16·9
1954-55	1,88,433	21,357	11·33
1955-56	2,19,630	23,051	10·9
1956-57	2,90,336	24,052	8·2
1957-58	2,50,396	18,941	7·3
1958-59	2,82,033	13,655	5·9
1959-60	3,08,700	11,367	3·6
1960-61	4,42,228	12,560	2·8

LEPROSY.

Leprosy is a dangerous disease that causes deformation amongst the persons affected. There are six survey, education and treatment units of leprosy, attached to six primary health centres alongwith one eradication unit with headquarters at Amravati serving 80 villages.

The Maharogi Sewa Mandal, Tapovan, Amravati, the Kothara Leprosy Home and Hospital, Kothara; the Krishi Sudhar Mandal, Kashikhed, and the Maharogi Niwaran Sewa Sanstha, Palasmandal are the four renowned voluntary philanthropic organisations which have established hospitals at Amravati, Kothara, Kashikhed and Palasmandal with sub-centres at Warud, Daryapur, Morshi, Tiwsa, Anjangaon and Dharni. Nearly 15,000 indoor and outdoor patients are treated at these centres which

[1] Reproduced from the Socio-Economic Review, Amravati district, 1960-61.

provide for isolation as well as the treatment under the occupational therapy.

TUBERCULOSIS.

There is considerable incidence of T.B. also in the district. To control and eradicate the disease, under the anti-T.B. or the B.C.G. campaign under which a team works in vaccination, radiography, etc., a combined unit has been created for Amravati and Akola districts. The testing and vaccinating is done intermittently. The first testing was undertaken in the year 1954 and then subsequently in 1958 and 1959. The following table shows the progress of the B.C.G. campaign in Amravati district.

B.C.G. STATISTICS FOR AMRAVATI DISTRICT.

Tahsil	Number of persons tested			Number of persons treated		
	1954	1958	1959	1954	1958	1959
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Amravati ..	72,232	61,979	9,468	24,143	24,429	3,725
Achalpur ..	..	..	41,279	13,678	..	17,375
Morshi ..	41,246	12,280	34,131	12,752	4,870	13,261
Chandur Rly...	31,559	..	56,180	10,774	..	22,594
Daryapur ..	57,677	..	39,907	24,959	..	17,708
Melghat ..	..	..	13,215	..	..	4,432

Apart from the preventive measures undertaken under the scheme, the Government also takes curative measures. The Gopikisan Ganeshdas Rathi T.B. Hospital at Amravati is run by the Government. Similarly a 50 bed T.B. Hospital where patients suffering from T.B. are secluded and treated is attached to the Irwin Hospital at Amravati. It was started on the recommendations of the Technical Commission of T.B. Association.

SMALL-POX.

Small-pox is another scourge that takes a heavy toll of human life. A good measure of success has been achieved in the eradication of this disease. Under the National Small-pox Eradication programme 36 additional vaccinators and 15 sanitary inspectors have been enrolled besides those working under the Zilla Parishad. They carry out the vaccination work.

FAMILY PLANNING.

The only remedy to check the excessive growth of population is family planning. The beginning towards the family planning in the district was made with the establishment of a small family planning centre at the Irwin Hospital Amravati, in December, 1960. Besides the centre attached to the Irwin Hospital, there were seven family planning centres attached to seven primary health centres. Two voluntary organisations are also doing the work regarding family planning in the rural areas of the district. Vasectomy camps are organised in the district. In 1962, 423 operations were performed in these camps.

ORGANISATION.

The medical and public health activities in the district are under the control of the State Government as well as the Zilla Parishad.

The Irwin District Hospital, the Dufferin Hospital, the Government G. G. Rathi T.B. Hospital and the Camp Hospital in Amravati town are under the control of the Civil Surgeon, Amravati in the State sector. Of these the first three are owned,

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staffed, financed and controlled by the Government of Maharashtra while the fourth which renders services to the police personnel is managed by the Dispensary Fund Committee, Amravati.

The Irwin District Hospital situated in Amravati town near the railway Station was constructed in 1928. The hospital has at present a sanctioned strength of 163 beds. All the facilities for medical and surgical treatment are provided for in this hospital. The Civil Surgeon, Amravati, who is the inspecting officer for Government and Government aided hospitals and dispensaries looks after the administration and management of Irwin District Hospital. He is assisted in this work by the Surgical Registrar. The Civil Surgeon also supervises the sanitary administration of Amravati town as well as the public health matters affecting the district in collaboration with the Public Health Officer of the Zilla Parishad. A blood bank, an eye bank, a district-*cum*-reference laboratory, a clinic for veneral diseases and a family planning centre are also attached to this hospital.

The Dufferin Hospital is situated near the Irwin Hospital. It is in charge of the Medical Superintendent who is a class I officer of the Maharashtra Medical Service. It has at present a strength of 119 beds. Besides the Medical Superintendent the staff of the hospital consists of two Assistant Surgeons who belong to class II of the Maharashtra Medical Service and three Assistant Medical Officers belonging to the class III of the Maharashtra Medical Service. Maternity and gynaecological cases are treated in this hospital.

The G. G. Rathi T.B. Hospital with a sanctioned strength of 60 beds is also a Government hospital which has a staff of one Assistant Surgeon (MMS II) and three Assistant Medical Officers (MMS III). It is under the charge of an Assistant Surgeon who works under the supervision of the Civil Surgeon, Amravati.

The Camp Hospital, Amravati, situated near the T.B. hospital treats the personnel of the police force. This hospital is in charge of an Assistant Medical Officer.

The Hospital Advisory Committee is responsible for working and management of these hospitals.

Though most of the Government aided hospitals and dispensaries, have been transferred to the Zilla Parishad, the Government still controls the Municipal Hospital, Dhamangaon Railway; the Municipal Hospital, Chandur Railway; the Municipal Hospital, Chandur Bazar; the City Hospital, Achalpur City; the Camp Hospital, Achalpur Camp and the J. H. Modi Hospital, Badnera. The Civil Surgeon, Amravati, is the administrative head of these hospitals.

In matters of public health, the State sector is headed by the Director of Public Health Services, Maharashtra State, Poona. However, most of the public health matters are looked after by the Zilla Parishad. All the hospitals and dispensaries except those managed by the Government are managed by the Zilla Parishad.

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Labour Department

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Organisation.

ALL THE OFFICES DEALING WITH LABOUR MATTERS fall within the administrative control of the Industries and Labour Department of the Government of Maharashtra. The Commissioner of Labour is the head of all such offices. He has under him (i) Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay and Nagpur, (ii) Assistant Commissioners of Labour at Bombay, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Poona, (iii) Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, with subordinate inspectorates at different important centres of the State, (iv) Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, Bombay, with subordinate inspectorate, and (v) the Chief Government Labour Officer, Bombay, with Government Labour Officers at each important centre.

The Commissioner of Labour performs the statutory functions entrusted to him under the various Acts, Central as well as State. He also supervises their enforcement administratively.

The Central Acts which he has to enforce are the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946, the Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Working Journalists (conditions of service and miscellaneous provisions) Act, 1955 and the Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961.

The enforcement of the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947 and the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, which are State Acts also vests in him. The Commissioner of Labour also supervises and co-ordinates the working of the offices under his control. In addition, the office of the Commissioner of Labour has to compile and publish the Consumer Price Index Numbers for working class for Bombay, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Nagpur, Aurangabad and Nanded, to conduct socio-economic enquiries into the conditions of labour, to compile and disseminate information on matters connected with labour in general and collect statistics regarding industrial disputes, agricultural wages, absenteeism, cotton mills, trade unions, etc., in particular, to publish the Labour Gazette and the Industrial Court Reporter which are the monthlies, to supervise the working of the Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, wherever it is administered by local authorities and to conduct advisory service as regards personnel management.

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The Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, is declared as the regional head of all the offices under the Commissioner of Labour in Nagpur and Aurangabad Divisions and has been entrusted with the necessary powers for running the administration of the Labour Offices in these Divisions. He performs statutory functions entrusted to him under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. He is the certifying authority of Standing Orders under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, the Registrar of Recognised Unions under the said Act and has also been appointed as Authority under Section 16 of the Act to assist the Commissioner of Labour under that Section. He is assisted by two Assistant Commissioners of Labour stationed at Nagpur and having jurisdiction over the entire Vidarbha Division. Both these Assistant Commissioners are appointed as Authorities under Section 16 of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and one of them is also appointed as Assistant Registrar of Recognised Unions under the said Act. There are also Government Labour Officers at Nagpur and other centres including Amravati. They perform the statutory duties of Labour Officer entrusted to them under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. They are appointed as Conciliators under the said Act and are also Inspectors under the Shops and Establishments Act and the Minimum Wages Act. The Government Labour Officers are also appointed as Inspectors under the Working Journalists Act. They deal with individual complaints from all industries which fall within the purview of State Government. There is a separate socio-economic research section in the office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, which conducts enquiries into various socio-economic and labour problems in different industries.

Labour Unions.

One of the Deputy Commissioners of Labour at Bombay has been notified as the Registrar of Trade Unions under the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, in addition to his duties as Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. He is assisted in his work by the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, who has been notified as Additional Registrar as far as Vidarbha region is concerned.

The work in connection with the administration of this Act includes the registration of trade unions under the Act, registration of amendments to the constitutions of the Unions and preparation of Annual Report on the working of the Act in the State based on the information contained in the annual returns submitted by the Registered Trade Unions under Section 28 of the Act. There are 20 registered Trade Unions in Amravati district.

Consumer Price Index Number for Working Class.

No separate Cost of Living Index is compiled for Amravati district. The index series at Nagpur is adopted in all centres of Nagpur Division.

LABOUR.

Wages and Earnings.

Under an award, the minimum basic wage for an unskilled worker is fixed at Rs. 23 for 26 working days in a month in the case of textile mills. Due to the recent Textile Wage Board Recommendations, the Textile Workers have gained an increase of Rs. 8 in all. The rate of dearness allowance is linked to the cost of living series at Nagpur.

Shops and Establishments Act.

Bombay Shops and Establishments Act, 1948, has been made applicable to Amravati, Daryapur, Anjangaon, Achalpur, Badnera and Dhamangaon in Amravati district.

The Act is administered by the office of the Deputy Commissioner of Labour, Nagpur, in all these centres except at Daryapur, Anjangaon and Amravati where it is administered by the municipality. He is assisted by Shop Inspectors in the enforcement of the Act. The Act fixes working hours, rest periods, spread over of work, weekly holidays with wages, annual leave with wages, etc., for employees in shops, commercial establishments, restaurants, and places of amusement.

State Insurance Act.

The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, has not been made applicable to the district. The Employees' Provident Fund Act is, however, applicable to the district.

Factories Act.

The Factories Act, 1948, and Rules thereunder prescribe for appointment of Welfare Officers in all factories employing more than 500 workmen on an average. They also prescribe the number of such officers to be appointed according to the strength of the factories.

Government Labour Officers

The Government Labour Officers at Bombay work under the supervision and control of the Chief Government Labour Officer, Bombay. At various sub-offices they are under the administrative control of the respective heads of offices or the regional heads. In the Vidarbha Division, there are five Government Labour Officers, two at Nagpur and one each at Bhandara, Akola and Amravati. The Government Labour Officers are statutory Labour Officers under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and are also appointed as Conciliators under that Act. In the absence of recognised unions in any industry, they have to elect representatives of employees for the purpose of representation of employees in collective disputes and in the absence of any such elected representative they themselves have to act as representatives of the employees. They attend to individual complaints from employees from all the industries and keep Government and other authorities informed of the latest situation in the labour and industrial fields by sending regular reports to these authorities. They also act as Minimum Wages Inspectors and Shop Inspectors and, as such, enforce the provisions of these Acts in the areas under their jurisdiction. Being Inspectors under the Working Journalists Act, they are also concerned with the enforcement of the provisions of the said Act.

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Minimum Wages Act.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948, has been made applicable to the (1) oil mills, (2) public motor transport undertakings, (3) cement industry, (4) pottery making, (5) rice, flour and dal milling, (6) local authorities, (7) road construction and building operations, (8) stone-breaking and stone-crushing, (9) lac making, (10) leather manufactory, (11) glass industry, (12) bidi manufactory, (13) cotton ginning and pressing factories, (14) printing presses and (15) shops and commercial establishments. Rates of minimum wages have been prescribed by the former Madhya Pradesh Government in all the employments except shops and commercial establishments. In the employment in shops and commercial establishments, the minimum wages have been fixed by the Bombay Government[1] in Nagpur City only. There are two full-fledged Minimum Wages Inspectors (Non-Gazetted) for the enforcement of the provisions of the Act whose jurisdiction extends over all the eight districts in the Nagpur Division. The Government Labour Officer, Amravati, is also Minimum Wages Inspector for the area under his jurisdiction and helps in the enforcement of the provisions of the Act.

Industrial Court.

The State Industrial Court, Nagpur, is constituted under Section 22 of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. It exercises jurisdiction over the entire Nagpur Division.

The President and the members of the Industrial Court under the Bombay Industrial Relations Act, 1946, are also appointed as President and members of the State Industrial Court, Nagpur, under the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. In addition, one member is stationed at Nagpur with an Assistant Registrar and the necessary ministerial staff under him.

There are eight District Industrial Courts in the Nagpur Division one each at Nagpur, Bhandara, Amravati, Akola, Chanda, Yeotmal, Buldhana and Wardha.

The duties and powers of the State Industrial Court, Nagpur, are detailed in Chapter III of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. The State Industrial Court acts as a court of arbitration in industrial disputes referred to it by a civil court, on reference by the State Government or on application by an employer or employee concerned or by a representative of the employee concerned or by the Labour Officer to decide the illegality of strike, lockout or any notice of change. The parties may refer the dispute to the State Industrial Court, Nagpur, on failure of the conciliation proceedings. The State Government may also make a reference to it for a declaration whether a proposed strike, lockout, closure or stoppage of work would be illegal.

In its appellate jurisdiction, it decides appeals preferred to it from the orders of District Industrial Court, Wage Board and Commissioner of Labour.

[1] Notification No. MWA-4257-J, dated the 18th April 1959.

There is a provision under Chapter IV-A of the Central Provinces and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, for appointment of Wage Boards in different industries for dealing with the disputes in the respective industries. A Wage Board for the Cotton Textile Industry in the Vidarbha Division has been constituted by the State Government. References of disputes to the Wage Board are made by Government by a notification issued under Section 37-C of the Act. An appeal against the decision of the Wage Board lies to the State Industrial Court.

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Wage Board.

The Factory Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay. But the Chief Inspector of Factories, Bombay, has complete control of the technical side of the work of the department all over the State. Amravati District, along with other districts of Nagpur, Wardha, Chanda, Yeotmal, Akola, Buldhana and Bhandara in Nagpur Division and Parbhani, Aurangabad, Nanded, Bhir and Osmanabad in Aurangabad Division, falls under the jurisdiction of the Deputy Chief Inspector of Factories, Nagpur, who is the regional head for the two regions. The Factory Department is mainly responsible for the administration of the Factories Act, 1948. The Department has also to administer Payment of Wages Act, 1936, Maternity Benefit Act, Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act, 1925 (Issue of Licences and Approval of plans only), Employment of Children Act, 1938 and Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.

Factory Department.

The work of issuing licences in Vidarbha area under the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act is also done by the Nagpur Factory Inspection Office. The sub-offices of the Factory Department have been opened at Akola, Aurangabad and Bhandara where the Inspectors have been posted along with the necessary ministerial staff.

The main function of the Inspectors is to ensure that the provisions of the Factories Act and rules thereunder are observed by the management of the factories. The Inspectors have also powers to prosecute conduct or defend before the competent courts, cases under the Factories Act, Payment of Wages Act and Maternity Benefit Act.

Workmen's Compensation Act: Under the provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act (VIII of 1923), the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, has been given exclusive jurisdiction over Bombay and Bombay Suburban District. The Commissioner has also exclusive jurisdiction to try all cases relating to the Western, Central and Southern Railways and the hydroelectric companies under the management of Messrs. Tata Hydroelectric Agencies, Ltd., arising in the State irrespective of the district in which they occur. The Commissioner has also general jurisdiction over the whole State.

Workmen's Compensation Act.

The Civil Judge, Senior Division, Amravati, is *ex officio* Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation for Amravati district.

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Workmen's Compensation Act.

The principal reason for giving the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, jurisdiction over the whole State is to enable him to settle the cases with insurance companies and other firms which have their head offices in Bombay city. But as this arrangement necessarily entails a certain amount of overlapping, Government have issued instructions under Section 20 (2) of the Act for distribution of work between the Commissioner and the *ex officio* Commissioners. Under these instructions, the Commissioner at Bombay is authorised—

(a) to receive deposits for distribution of compensation under sub-sections (1) and (2) of section 8;

(b) to issue notices to, and to receive applications from dependants in cases of deposits under these sub-sections; and

(c) to receive agreements for registration under section 28, wherever the accident may have taken place.

Where a deposit is received or an agreement is tendered for registration, the Commissioner notifies the *ex officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for orders to deposit compensation when no deposit under section 8 (1) has been received, and other applications provided for in section 22 of the Act should be made to the *ex officio* Commissioner within whose jurisdiction the accident occurs. Notices to employers under Section 10-A requiring statements regarding fatal accidents in the district are issued by the *ex officio* Commissioners and reports of fatal accidents made under Section 10-B are also received by them. After notice has been issued by the *ex officio* Commissioner under Section 10-A, the employer deposits the money with the Commissioner at Bombay and the latter notifies the receipt of the deposit to the *ex officio* Commissioner concerned. Applications for review or commutation of half monthly payments have to be made to the Commissioner who passed the original orders.

As regards the cases arising out of accidents on the Southern Railway, they are dealt with by the *ex officio* Commissioners concerned.

Payment of Wages Act.

Payment of Wages Act, 1936: In Amravati District, the Civil Judges have been appointed as authorities for the area within their jurisdiction.

Minimum Wages Act, 1948.

Minimum Wages Act, 1948: The Civil Judges who have been appointed authorities under the Payment of Wages Act have been appointed authorities under the Minimum Wages Act to hear and decide claims arising out of payment of less than the minimum rates of wages to employees employed or paid in their respective jurisdictions.

Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Department.

The Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Bombay, but the Chief Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances, who is the head of the office, has full control over the technical side of the work and is responsible for the smooth working and administration of the Indian Boilers Act, 1960, and rules thereunder.

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Other Social Services.

LABOUR.

Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances Department.

The work carried out by the department mainly comprises the registration and inspection of steam boilers, economisers and steam pipes including mountings and other fittings. The registration and inspection work of the steam boilers in the district is carried out by the Inspector of Steam Boilers and Smoke Nuisances with his headquarters at Nagpur. Competency Boiler Attendants Examinations are held at Nagpur thrice a year for the benefit of the candidates from the Vidarbha Region. For this purpose, the Inspector at Nagpur has been appointed as the Secretary of the Board of Examiners.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE DEPARTMENT

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Organisation.

The prohibition policy of the Government aims at higher moral, ethical and economic standards and achievement of peaceful living conditions in the society. To implement this policy the Bombay Prohibition Act was passed in 1949 which was extended to Amravati district from April 1, 1959. The Act prohibits production, possession, export, import, transport, sale, consumption and use of all intoxicants except as permitted by any rules and orders. However, prohibition existed in Amravati district even before the application of this Act. It was governed under the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938.

Total prohibition was introduced in Amravati district excepting the Melghat tahsil from October 1, 1946. It was extended to the Melghat tahsil from April 1, 1957, under the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938, which was in force in the district till 31st March, 1959. The Bombay Prohibition Act, 1949 (XXV of 1949) was extended to Amravati district from April 1, 1959. The Collector of the district is responsible for the administration of Prohibition and Excise Department in the district. In relation to this Department he is responsible to the Director of Prohibition and Excise, Maharashtra State, Bombay. He is invested with powers under the Bombay Prohibition Act (XXV of 1949) and also exercises powers under the Dangerous Drugs Act (II of 1930) and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act (XX of 1936). Under the Bombay Prohibition Act, prohibition or restrictions have been placed on the manufacture, import, export, transport, sale, possession, use and consumption of liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp, mhowra flowers and molasses and of articles containing liquor, intoxicating drugs or hemp. The Collector has powers to grant, cancel or suspend licences, permits and passes under the Act.

The District Inspector of Prohibition and Excise, Amravati, assists the Collector and is in actual charge of the work of the department in the district. Under him there are three Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise for executive work. One Sub-Inspector of Prohibition and Excise has been appointed to supervise the work pertaining to foreign liquor vendors' licences. The Sub-Inspectors of Prohibition and Excise have also been invested with certain powers under the Prohibition Act, the Dangerous Drugs Act and the Bombay Opium Smoking Act.

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Other Social Services.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Medical Boards.

In each tahsil or a mahal a medical board has been constituted consisting of the Government Medical Officer or Government Assistant Medical Officer, respectively. If there is no such officer in the tahsil or mahal, the nearest Government Medical Officer or Government Assistant Medical Officer functions as a Medical Board. The function of the Medical Board is to examine medically any person who applies for a permit to possess opium, *ganja* or bhang for personal consumption and who is directed by the Collector or an authorised officer in this behalf to appear before the Medical Board. On examination the Medical Board has to issue a medical certificate specifying the disease the applicant is suffering from, the drug recommended for personal consumption as medical necessity and the quantity of the drug which may be permitted per month for personal consumption. The Profesor of Medicine. Medical College, Nagpur. constitutes a panel of the Maharashtra (Drugs Permits) Medical Board for the Nagpur Division. The Director of Prohibition and Excise, Maharashtra State, Bombay, either *suo motu* or on an application made to him by an applicant or permit holder, may refer any case or point to the panel concerned for consideration. The panel can either confirm, modify or reverse the decision of the Medical Board.

Enforcement Work.

The Police Department is the chief agency that deals with detection, investigation and prosecution of offences under the Prohibition Act. Though Officers of the Prohibition and Excise department of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector have been invested with powers to investigate offences, these officers generally pass on information of the commission of offences and hand over the cases detected by them to the police for investigation. Under section 134 of the Prohibition Act, village officers village servants, officers of other departments of the State Government and officers and servants of local authorities are bound to give information to the police of breaches of the provisions of the Act which may come to their knowledge and also to prevent the commission of breaches of the provisions of the Act about which they may have knowledge. Under Section 133. officers and servants of local authorities are also bound to assist any police officer or person authorised to carry out the provisions of the Act. Under Section 135, occupiers of lands and buildings, landlords of estates, owners of vehicles, etc., are bound to give notice of any illicit tapping of trees or manufacture of liquor or intoxicating drug to a magistrate, a prohibition officer or a police officer as soon they come to know of it.

All revenue officers of and above the rank of Mamlatdar or Mahalkari, all Magistrates, and all officers of the Department of Prohibition and Excise of and above the rank of Sub-Inspector have been authorised, under Section 123 of the Prohibition Act within the limits of their respective jurisdictions, to arrest without a warrant any person whom they have reason to believe to be guilty of an offence under the Act, and to seize and detain any articles of contraband. The Officer so authorised, when

arrests any person or seizes and detains any articles, has to forward such person or articles, within reasonable time, to the officer in charge of the nearest police station.

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PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Effects of Prohibition.

Total Prohibition was introduced in Amravati district from October 1, 1946. The department reported a considerable fall in the consumption of all kinds of drugs for the years from 1946 to 1959-60.

The revenue for these years also registered a substantial fall.

Kinds of Permits.

Various kinds of permits are granted for the possession, use, etc., of foreign liquor. They are as follows:

Emergency Permit.

(1) *Emergency Permit.*—Emergency permit is granted for the use or consumption of brandy, rum or champagne to any person for his/her own use or consumption or to any head of a household for the use of his/her household for medicinal use on emergent occasions. The permit is granted for a period not beyond 31st March next following the date of the commencement of the permit and for a quantity not exceeding 6-2/3 fluid ounces of brandy or rum or 13-1/3 fluid ounces of champagne per six months. A permit is not granted to more than one member of a household at any one time or to a minor. The term 'household' is defined as a group of persons residing and messing jointly as members of one domestic unit.

Health Permit.

(2) *Health Permit.*—The health permit is granted for the use or consumption of foreign liquor for a quantity up to the maximum of two units* a month to any person who requires such liquor for the preservation or maintenance of his health. This permit may be granted to an applicant for a quantity exceeding two units but not more than three units of foreign liquor a month if the applicant at the time of making an application is more than 55 years of age, provided that:—

(*a*) the applicant has made such application within three months of the expiry of the health permit held by him authorising him to consume more than two units*, and

(*b*) the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board, as the case may be, recommends to such applicant a quantity in excess of two units.*

This permit is usually granted for a period not exceeding that recommended by the Area Medical Board or the State Medical Board, as the case may be, but such period shall not exceed six months in any case:—

Provided that the permit may be granted for a period not exceeding 12 months in the case of persons over 70 years of age.

Temporary Resident's Permit.

(3) *Temporary Resident's Permit.*—A temporary resident's permit is issued to persons born and brought up or domiciled in a country outside India, where liquor is usually consumed for such monthly quantity not exceeding four units* as the Collector

*One unit is equal to 1 quart bottle (of 26 2/3 ozs) of spirit or 3 quart bottles of wine or 9 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume or 27 quart bottles of fermented liquors of a strength not exceeding 2 per cent of alcohol by volume.

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may fix in each case. No permit can be granted for a period beyond 31st March next following the date of its commencement.

Visitor's Permit.

(4) *Visitor's Permit.*—Any person visiting the State of Maharashtra for a period of not more than a week and desiring to possess, use and consume foreign liquor may apply to the Collector for a permit. The permit is granted for a period not exceeding one week provided that the Collector may extend the period of such permit, but in no case is such period to be extended to a total period exceeding one month. No permit can be granted for a quantity exceeding one unit per week.

Interim Permit.

(5) *Interim Permit.*—Any person who is eligible for a permit under rules 63, 64 or 68 of the Bombay Foreign Liquor Rules, 1953, and desires to possess, use or consume foreign liquor may apply to the Collector or any other officer authorised in this behalf for an interim permit while applying for a regular permit under any of the said Rules. No such permit is granted for a period exceeding two months. The permit is granted for such monthly quantity of foreign liquor as the Collector may fix, provided that such quantity shall not in any case exceed two units of foreign liquor per month if the permit holder is not eligible for permit under Rule 63 or 68, or four units of foreign liquor per month in other cases, except with the previous sanction of the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

Tourist's Permit.

(6) *Tourist's Permit.*—This is issued free to a foreign tourist holding a tourist introduction card or tourist visa. The quantity of foreign liquor granted under this permit is four units per month and it is granted for one month.

Special Permit.

(7) *Special permit for privileged personages.*—This permit is granted to consular officers and the members of the staff appointed by or serving under them, provided that such members are nationals of a foreign State. It is also granted to the consorts and relatives of the category of persons specified above. The permit is granted for a period not extending beyond 31st March next following the date of the commencement of the permit. This permit is granted for any quantity of foreign liquor if the permit holder is a Sovereign or Head of Foreign State or his consort. If the permit holder is any other person, the permit is granted for a quantity of foreign liquor not exceeding that which may be fixed by the State Government, or by the Director of Prohibition and Excise.

Toddy.

The possession, use, etc., of toddy is completely prohibited.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit is prohibited except under a permit or licence. A permit for possession and use of denatured spirit for domestic purposes is granted for a quantity not exceeding one quart bottle per month provided that the officer granting the permit may for any special reason grant the permit for any quantity not exceeding three quart bottles per month;

Provided further that with the previous sanction of the Collector a permit may be granted for a quantity exceeding three quart bottles per month.

PROHIBITION AND EXCISE.

Denatured Spirit.

The possession and use of denatured spirit for medical, scientific and educational purposes and for purpose of art, industry or profession is regulated by the system of licences prescribed in this behalf. Methylated industrial denatured spirit or special industrial denatured spirit required for use in any industry is allowed to be possessed on licences issued under the Bombay Denatured Spirit Rules, 1959.

Country Liquor and Wine.

Authorisations for use of country liquor and wine for sacramental purposes only are granted to priests of certain communities, viz., Parsees, Jews and Christians.

Ganja, Bhang, Opium.

A permit for personal consumption of opium, ganja or bhang is granted only on a production of medical certificate from the Medical Board constituted by Government for the purpose. The maximum quantity which may be allowed per month under such permits is 96 grams in the case of ganja and bhang and 60 grams in the case of opium. A permit can be granted for only one of these drugs.

There are also rules governing the possession, use, transport, sale, etc., of dangerous drugs, mhowra flowers, molasses, rectified spirit and absolute alcohol for industrial, medicinal and other purposes.

Neera and Palm Products.

Neera sale licences as well as licences for manufacturing Gur from Neera are granted only to (i) the co-operative societies organised by social workers engaged in constructive work, (2) other similarly organised institutions such as Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, (3) ashrams, (4) organisations in charge of Intensive Area Schemes, (5) Sarvodaya centres, etc., on the recommendation of the Khadi and Village Industries Board for the State of Maharashtra. No Neera licences are granted to individuals

Sub-Committees of Village Panchayats.

Sub-Committees of village panchayats.—With a view to securing assistance from the village panchayats in prohibition propaganda work they have been directed to form Sub-Committees for the purpose. These Sub-Committees are to be guided in this regard by the Social Education Officer if the villages are in project or National Extension Service Areas and by the District Publicity Officers and the Prohibition and Excise staff in other areas Local officers such as Patils and Talathis have to assist and advise these Sub-Committees in this regard

Samskar Kendras.

In Amravati district, there are two departmental Samskar Kendras, one each at Badnera, Chikhaldara and two subsidised Samskar Kendras one each at Yeoti and Talevel.

SOCIAL WELFARE DEPARTMENT

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Organisation.

At the ministerial level, the Department of Social Welfare was constituted after the reorganisation of States from 1st November 1956. It, however, took shape at the Directorate

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SOCIAL WELFARE. Organisation.

level from September 15, 1957[1]. The backward class welfare work done previously by the Backward Class Department was transferred to the Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department. The other wing of the Social Welfare Department is the Correctional Wing. The designation of the Director of Backward Class Welfare was changed to Director of Social Welfare. He is the head of the Social Welfare Department of the State. The post of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions was redesignated as Deputy Director of Social Welfare (Correctional Wing). He assists the Director of Social Welfare in matters relating to the Correctional Wing. There is another class I post of Special Officer who looks after the work relating to the education and social welfare of physically handicapped. A third post of Deputy Director has also been created under the Social Welfare Department to look after the work relating to both Backward Class Welfare and Correctional Administration. The Backward Class Wing of the Social Welfare Department aims at ameliorating the conditions of Backward Classes so that they reach the standard of other privileged sections of the society.

There are divisional offices for each revenue division which started functioning from June 1, 1961

The Divisional Officers are Class I Officers. At the district level, the department has district officers termed as Social Welfare Officers who are Class II Officers. Their services have been transferred to the Zilla Parishads with the inception of the Parishads. They are responsible to the Chief Executive Officer of the Zilla Parishad. They execute the schemes proposed by the Social Welfare Department and co-ordinate the work of backward class welfare in the district in respect of backward class welfare schemes implemented by the various departments of the State. There are seven Area Organisers in charge of certain zones in respect of tribal welfare work in Vidarbha Division. They are all Class II Officers of the status of Social Welfare Officers Their duties pertain to the tribal welfare schemes in their respective zones.

Backward Classes.

The Backward Classes are classified into three broad categories, *viz.*, (1) the Scheduled Castes or Harijans, (2) the Scheduled Tribes or Adivasis, and (3) the Other Backward Classes, who are neither Scheduled Castes nor Scheduled Tribes but socially, economically and educationally as backward as the other two categories. The communities coming under the first two categories are notified by the Government of India under the orders of the President for each of the States in the Indian Union. The communities coming under other backward classes and recognised by the State differ in the component units of the State[2]. However, the classification of other backward

[1] Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. BCE-2857-D, dated 23rd September, 1957.

[2] Government Resolution, Labour and Social Welfare Department, No. CBC-1769-E, dated 18-5-59.

classes based on communities does not exist now. A new category of other backward classes based on income, including in it, persons whose income was less than Rs. 900 came to be recognised. From 1960-61, this income limit was further increased to Rs. 1,200 per annum. This new class of other backward classes enjoys the facility of free education at all stages.

In view of the policy of the Government to ameliorate the conditions of backward classes so as to bring them on par with other sections of the population, a number of privileges are granted to backward classes by the Constitution of India. Special grants are also made every year by Government of India, under article 275 (i). Besides normal concessions made available to backward classes from time to time. special schemes are framed for Backward Classes by the State Government under the Five-Year Plans and these are being implemented vigorously.

Measures of uplift.

The disabilities of Backward Classes are threefold, educational, economical and social. The Government have, therefore, launched a three-pronged drive to eliminate these disabilities within the shortest possible time.

In the educational sphere the Government provides many facilities to the backward class students such as general concessions of freestudentship, payment of examination fees, etc. Balwadis are also opened along with *samskar kendras* for the benefit of the scheduled castes, the *vimukta jatis* and the nomadic and the semi-nomadic tribes.

On the economic front the problem is that of economic rehabilitation. It is to be realised through (i) grant of cultivable waste lands and other facilities such as supply of plough and bullocks, implements, seeds, etc., (ii) establishing training centres for imparting training in hereditary crafts and providing financial help for their rehabilitation in various cottage industries, (iii) imbibing the co-operative spirit in their day-to-day life, (iv) introducing special measures for housing of backward classes, and (v) reserving certain percentage of vacancies for backward classes in service under the State Government and local bodies and under semi-Government organisations

On the social side the activity is designed to remove the stigma of untouchability in respect of scheduled castes, assimilation of scheduled tribes in the general population without destroying their hereditary traits and rehabilitation of ex-criminal tribes and nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes from among the category of other backward classes. Legislations as well as propoganda through the voluntary agencies are the means used to achieve this object. Mention may be made here of the Untouchability Offences Act, 1955, passed by the Government of India to stop the practice of observance of untouchability.

With the liberal assistance of the Central Government under Article 275 (1) of the Constitution of India, amounting to

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SOCIAL WELFARE.

Measures of uplift.

50 per cent of the expenditure incurred by the State Government in this behalf, various measures are undertaken by the State Government for the uplift of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, *vimukta jatis* and other backward classes under the Five-Year Plans. These measures are framed after taking into consideration the felt needs of these sections of the backward classes and with a view to achieving their economic uplift and settlement and removal of their social disabilities. The Third Five-Year Plan provides for a programme of Backward Class Welfare with a total outlay of Rs. 5.61 crores for the Maharashtra State. Besides this, the Government of India has also sponsored on cent per cent basis a special programme amounting to Rs. 3.53 crores for the welfare of backward classes in the Maharashtra State which includes the opening of 18 multipurpose projects in scheduled areas of the State, along with other measures for the welfare of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and *vimukta jatis*.

In the implementation of these backward class welfare measures advice and co-operation is also sought from eminent social workers and voluntary organisations through the State Board for Harijan Welfare and the State Tribes Advisory Council.

Set-up in the District.

In the year 1954, an independent Directorate was established at the State level to carry out the social welfare activities in the then Madhya Pradesh State of which Amravati district was an integral part. Thus an independent office of the District Welfare Officer was started at every district headquarters to carry out all the social welfare activities. These activities were to be carried out irrespective of caste and creed. Importance was mainly given to the literacy of adults and improvement in the working of gram panchayats. All the welfare activities were to be executed through the agency of the gram panchayat. Programmes for the welfare of Scheduled Castes were also specially undertaken by the gram panchayats by observance of the Harijan week and removal of untouchability by opening public places like wells and temples to the Harijans. An Independent Minister was in charge of this Department at the State level. The Director was the executive head of the department and was assisted by three Assistant Directors. At the Divisional level one Divisional Welfare Officer was appointed for the Division composed of four districts to look after the working of the departmental activities at the district level and also to report to the Director about the ways and means to remove the difficulties in the way of implementing the schemes which were newly introduced through the gram panchayats. For tribal welfare activities there was a Regional Officer who supervised tribal welfare activities and controlled the staff of Area Organisers from the scheduled areas. One District Social Welfare Officer for each district headquarters with radio assistant at divisional Social Welfare Officer. He was assisted by one Social Welfare Inspector for each tahsil of the district with his headquarters at the tahsil place, one village assistant for the group of every three panchayats, one radio mechanic and battery attendant at

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SOCIAL WELFARE.

Set-up in the District.

each district headquarters with one radio assistant at divisional headquarters. The adult literacy classes were conducted with the help of primary teachers or any voluntary worker on the basis of an honorarium at the rate of Rs. 10 per month for each class of 20 adults.

Welfare of the scheduled tribes was undertaken by an independent office established under the Area Organiser, Tribal Welfare, from 1948 in some of the districts of the former Madhya Pradesh State. Amravati was one of those districts where an independent Area Organiser with his headquarters at Achalpur was appointed to implement the schemes for the welfare of scheduled tribes. Besides the ministerial staff the Area Organiser was assisted by Circle Organisers in his work.

During the First Five-Year Plan there were two centres one at Dharni and the other at Chikhaldara. At each one of the centres was a Stock-man, a *Dai* and Circle Organisers. Veterinary cases were also looked after. This medical aid served the primary necessity of the tribals in a limited area around the centres and round about villages.

After November 1, 1956, the District Welfare Officer was designated as Social Welfare Officer. He heads the district office and is assisted by Social Welfare Inspectors whose strength is fixed for each district on the basis of the schemes implemented in the district. The eight districts of the Vidarbha region are placed under the control of one Divisional Social Welfare Officer for general supervision and overall control.

The Social Welfare Officer works as a liaison officer between the backward classes and various departments of the State Government. He is to see that fullest benefit of all the legislations is accorded to backward classes and that they derive the maximum concessions sanctioned.

Measures of uplift.

Education.

The uplift of the backward classes is sought to be achieved in various ways. First of all special facilities are given to them for receiving education at all stages. They get freeships, examination fees and scholarships. Provision for overseas scholarships is also made. The total expenditure on the educational schemes for backward classes was Rs. 13,37,835 in the district for the year 1961-62.

Under the educational activities, the department conducted 48 primary schools and one middle school with a hostel attached to it. At this hostel stipend at the rate of Rs 20 per month for a student belonging to backward class was given. Scholarships to tribal boys attending schools and colleges were arranged from the regional office.

The total number of teachers was 103 and in all about 2,500 boys and girls belonging mostly to scheduled tribes were on the roll. For giving encouragement to boys and girls of tribal areas, provision of midday meals and clothing is made in schools. These schools are also provided with medical aid, medicine chests, etc., for treating common ailments.

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SOCIAL WELFARE.

Measures of uplift.

Hostels.

In addition grants are given to the voluntary agencies working in the sphere of hostel management. There are 12 hostels in the district which have received grant-in-aid to the tune of Rs. 1,77,001. These hostels accommodated 381 students.

There are 12 hostels in the district opened by the voluntary agencies as shown below. They receive grant-in-aid from the Social Welfare Department. The hostel inmates are provided with lodging, boarding and other essential amenities.

Name of the Hostel and Location	*Name of the Voluntary Agency*
Adarsha Vidyarthi Griha, Amravati ..	The Adarsha Vidyarthi Griha, Amravati.
Shri Ram Education Society Hostel, Takarkheda Sambhu.	Shri Ram Education Society, Takarkheda Sambhu.
Depressed Class Students Hostel, Warud ..	The Depressed Classes League, Nagpur.
Harijan Vasatigriha, Morshi	Vidarbha Harijan Sewak Sangh, Morshi.
Shri Gurudeo Backward Classes Hostel, Mozari.	Shri Gurudeo Sewa Mandal, Mozari.
Dallitodhar Boarding, Paratwada	Dallitodhar Boarding, Paratwada.
Ogale Smarak Vasatigriha, Amravati ..	Vidarbha Harijan Education Society.
Vidarbha Adiwasi Hostel, Achalpur Camp	Vidarbha Adiwasi Sewa Mandal, Achalpur Camp.
Adiwasi Hostel, Amravati	Adiwasi Shikshan Prasarak Mandal, Yeotmal.
Adiwasi Hostel, Shendurjana Ghat ..	Do.
Lok-Sewa Chhatralaya, Chikhaldara ..	Lok-Sewa Chhatralaya, Chikhaldara.
Kasturba Kanyashram, Madhan	Kasturba Memorial Trust, Madhan, tahsil Achalpur.

Reservation of Posts in State Services.

Article 16 (4) of the Constitution empowers State Governments to provide for the reservation of posts for any section of the backward class community which in the opinion of the State Government is not adequately represented in the services under the State. In the ex-Madhya Pradesh State this provision was fully utilised for the betterment of the backward classes by reserving 15 per cent of class I, II, III and IV services for backward classes and 15 per cent for scheduled tribes.

The same provision was continued after the reorganization and then after bifurcation. The principle of reservation was made applicable to the local bodies also in the year 1959. To properly implement this principle the Social Welfare Officer works as Employment Officer and is entrusted with the task of enrolment of Backward Class candidates. The maximum age-limits prescribed for appointment to Class III and Class IV Services and posts under the relevant recruitment rules are relaxable by five years for candidates belonging to the Backward Class.

Housing.

The backward classes are also provided with housing accommodation by the grant of loan for the purchase of suitable building sites for individual construction or for co-operative societies of the backward classes. Besides giving loans for the new houses, the Government have envisaged schemes granting aid for repairs to old houses. The residential localities of the

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backward classes in rural areas are unhealthy. This scheme is implemented on the recommendations of the Central Advisory Board for Harijans and of the Government of India, Ministry of Home Affairs. At present under Post-War reconstruction scheme No. 219, Backward Class Housing Societies are eligible to receive financial assistance up to 75 per cent of the cost of construction, limited to 37½ per cent of the cost according to the different ceilings by way of interest-free loan repayable in 25 years and 37½ per cent of the cost by way of subsidy in respect of scheduled tribes and 50 per cent loan and 25 per cent subsidy in respect of scheduled castes. In addition to this, interest-free loan for development purposes up to 15 per cent of the ceiling is also given to backward class co-operative societies. Management expenses are also given by way of subsidies. Free grant of land is made under this scheme.

In addition the scheme of mixed colonisation is also formulated. Under this scheme it is incumbent upon each colony to allocate at least 10 per cent for non-backward class families.

Every individual is given a grant-in-aid to the tune of Rs. 100. Under the centrally sponsored programme, grants are also made available to the individual backward class families to construct houses. According to this programme Rs. 750 are paid as grant-in-aid to individual backward class families for construction of house.

Economic Regeneration.

The economic regeneration of the backward classes is promoted by various means. With a view to improving the technique of the hereditary occupations of these classes, Government have started training classes in various occupations through the agency of block officials. Till 1962, 75 trainees belonging to backward classes had been trained and the Government spent a sum of Rs. 1,42,407 towards the cost of training. The Government awards stipends and scholarships to the backward class artisans. After training them, they are encouraged to organise industrial co-operatives and help is given in the form of loan and subsidy. Individual backward class artisan can also take advantage of similar financial assistance. Co-operative farming societies of backward classes get State help in the form of loan-*cum*-subsidies and land free of revenue. The Government also desired to ensure stability to the Backward Classes in the profession in which they were engaged such as cattle breeding and dairy farming, poultry, etc. The State Government have, therefore, formulated the schemes of loan-*cum*-subsidy for the purchase of cows and buffaloes and goats or poultry. They are also given plough, bullock. seeds and implements on grant-in-aid basis. The expenditure incurred as aid given to Backward Class on loan-*cum*-subsidy basis amounted to Rs. 73,250 till 1962.

Social uplift.

Measures are taken to ensure the social uplift of the backward classes, especially the Harijans. The Bombay Harijan (Removal of Social Disabilities) Act (XXXVI of 1947) as amended in 1948 has been enacted with a view to bringing about complete

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Social Uplift.

removal of untouchability as far as public and civic rights are concerned. These provisions were made applicable to Amravati district from July 1, 1958.

With the above end in view the following schemes have been formulated by the State Government. Mixed hostels where backward classes and caste Hindu-boys live together are recognised for grant-in-aid. The work of removal of untouchability and propaganda is also done through the agency of Harijan Sewak Sangh which have employed *pracharaks* for the purpose.

To strike down the barriers of untouchability Government encourages inter-caste marriages by giving a public reception to the couple which is attended by the Collector, important officials and prominent social workers. For such celebrations grants to the tune of Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 are sanctioned. So far five inter-caste marriages have taken place in the district.

The lands of the tribals are protected by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, sub-section (2) of section 152. Under this section the right of the tenure holder cannot be transferred without the prior permission of the Collector. The notification issued by the old Madhya Pradesh State in 1955 to the effect is still in force.

The problem of distributing cultivable and forest land to needy persons was attended to, and in 1960, the then Bombay Government issued orders regarding the priorities of distribution in which backward classes ranked very high. During the year 1960-61, 26,528.310 hectares (65,502 acres) of land were distributed to 8,526 backward class families.

Recreational Activities.

A cultural squad of seven artists (kalakars) is maintained in each district to stage dramas, dialogues, songs, *powadas*, etc., through which the importance of various schemes implemented by the department is impressed upon the villagers. In each month at least 10 programmes are arranged in the rural areas by the cultural squad. Similarly cinema shows are also arranged at the places where programmes are given by the cultural squads. Documentary films and full length feature pictures supplied by the department are shown to the villagers.

Besides these schemes, the physical welfare activities are also encouraged by the department. This is done through aid to physical welfare institutions run by voluntary agencies. Mahila mandals, music, dance and drama schools and sewing classes run by voluntary agencies are given proportionate grant-in-aid on the basis of the expenditure incurred on recurring and non-recurring items of expenditure by them.

Under the Second Five-Year Plan 15 primary schools and 2 middle schools with a capacity for 40 students each at Churni and Sadrabadi were opened. Thus in Melghat scheduled area of Amravati district, in 1962-63 there were 63 primary schools and 3 middle schools with hostels attached to them. There were 3,350 students in these schools.

Measures of uplift.

Under the centrally sponsored schemes construction of houses and wells was undertaken. In 1962 construction of 85 houses and 13 wells was completed. In the same way assistance is given in the form of housing aid, supply of milch cattle, cottage industry aid, supply of seeds, plough, bullocks, etc., to improve the condition of the standard of living of the backward classes. With a view to eliminate the middle man and to give the benefit of cheap prices to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes five co-operative societies were registered. Under the scheme of legal aid to scheduled castes and scheduled tribes the beneficiary was given free legal aid during the year 1960-61.

Since the formation of the Zilla Parishad all these activities are carried out by the Zilla Parishad under the guidance of the department in the State sector.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Bombay Public Trusts Act

Prior to 1950, the Religious and Charitable Trusts in the State were governed under various enactments, Central as well as Provincial, based on religion. In 1950, a composite legislation called the Bombay Public Trusts Act (XXIX of 1950) was passed, which could be made applicable to all public trusts irrespective of their religious nomenclature. This Act defines 'public trust' as "an express or constructive trust for either a public, religious or charitable purpose or both, and includes a temple, a *math*, a *wakf*, a *dharmada* or any religious or charitable endowment and a society formed either for a religious or charitable purpose or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1860)".

The State Government is empowered to apply this Act to any public trust or class of public trusts. On such an application the provisions of previous Acts cease to apply to such trust or class of trusts. The Act was made applicable to the following classes of public trusts in the former Bombay State from January 21, 1952 and in the Marathwada and Vidarbha regions of the State from February 1, 1961 :—

(1) temples :

(2) *maths*,

(3) *wakfs* ;

(4) public trusts other than (1), (2) and (3) above, created or existing solely for the benefit of any community or communities or any section or sections thereof :

(5) societies formed either for religious or charitable purposes or for both and registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 ;

(6) *dharmadas*, i.e., any charges which, according to the custom or usage of any business or trade or agreement between the parties relating to any transaction, are recovered from any party to the transaction or collected under whatever name as being intended to be used for a charitable or religious purpose ; and

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Bombay Public Trusts Act.

(7) all other trusts, express or constructive, for either a public religious or charitable purpose or for both.

The Act is applicable to the charitable endowments vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act (VI of 1890).

A Charity Commissioner with headquarters at Bombay administers the Act. The first Charity Commissioner was appointed on the 14th August, 1950. An Assistant Charity Commissioner is appointed for Akola Region which comprises the districts of Akola, Buldhana, Amravati and Yeotmal. The Assistant Charity Commissioner is directly responsible to the Charity Commissioner.

Duties of Trustees.

The Act imposes a duty on the trustees of a public trust to which the Act is applied to make an application for the registration of the trust within three months of the application of the Act or its creation, giving particulars specified in the Act, which include (a) the approximate value of moveable and immoveable property owned by the trust, (b) the gross average annual income of the trust property, and (c) the amount of the average annual expenditure of the trust. No registration is, however, necessary in the case of *dharmadas* which are governed under special provisions of the Act in certain respects. Trusts registered under any of the previous Act are deemed to be registered under this Act.

The following statement furnishes statistics relating to Public Trusts in Amravati district registered in the Public Trusts Registration Office, Akola Region, Akola, till 30th June, 1962.

TABLE 1

PUBLIC TRUSTS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT REGISTERED TILL 30TH JUNE 1962

Section	Total number of Trusts registered	Value of property		Gross average annual income	Average annual expenditure
		Moveable	Immoveable		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
"A" (Trusts for the benefit of Hindus).	439	6,28,595	53,62.985	4,32,350	4,02,000
"B" (Trusts for the benefit of Muslims).	75	29,750	7,12,585	36,575	34,220
"C" (Trusts for the benefit of Parsees).	1	Nil.	38,100	7,000	5,000
"D" (Trusts for the benefit of Christians).	1	2,03,850	3,80,830	3,25.230	3,25,230
"E" (Trusts not for the benefit of any particular community).	56	2,45,440	8,14,760	1,49,310	1,58,815
"F" (Trusts registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860).	20	1,93,555	9,57,880	1,92,610	1,44,475
Total ..	592	13,01,190	82,67,140	11,43,075	10,69,740

Duties of Trustees.

A registration fee ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 25 is levied depending on the value of the property of the public trust. An annual contribution at the rate of 2 per cent of the gross annual income is also recovered which is credited to the Public Trusts Administration Fund created under the Act. The contribution does not form part of the general revenue of the State. Public Trusts exclusively for the purpose of advancement and propagation of secular education or medical relief and public trusts having gross annual income of Rs. 1,000 or less are exempted from the payment of contribution. Deductions from the gross annual income for computing contribution are allowed in respect of amounts spent on the advancement and propagation of secular education, medical relief, donations, grants received from Government or local authorities, interest on depreciation or sinking fund, taxes to be paid to Government or local authority, etc. The contribution is levied on the net annual profits in the case of public trusts conducting a business or trade.

Every trustee has to keep regular accounts of the trust which have to be audited annually by Chartered Accountants or persons authorised under the Act. A Chartered Accountant can audit accounts of any public trust but the persons authorised under the Act are permitted to audit accounts only of public trusts having a gross annual income of Rs. 3,000 or less. The auditor has to submit a report to the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner of his region on a number of points.

If on a consideration of the report of the auditor or of a report, if any, made by an Officer authorised under Section 37, the accounts and explanation, if any, furnished by the trust or any other person concerned, the Deputy or Assistant Charity Commissioner is satisfied that the trustee or any other person is guilty of gross negligence, breach of trust or misapplication or misconduct resulting in a loss to the trust, he has to report to the Charity Commissioner who, after due inquiry, determines the loss, if any, caused to the trust and surcharges the amount on the person found responsible for it. No sale, mortgage, exchange or gift of any immoveable property and no lease for a period exceeding ten years in the case of agricultural land and three years in the case of non-agricultural land or building belonging to a public trust is valid without the previous sanction of the Charity Commissioner. The trustee of a public trust is bound to invest the surplus funds of the trust in public securities or first mortgage of immoveable property on certain conditions. For making an investment in any other form, the permission of the Charity Commissioner must be obtained.

Application of Funds by Cypres.

If the original object of a public trust fails wholly or partially, if there is surplus income or balance not likely to be utilised, or in the case of a public trust, other than a trust for religious purpose, if it is not in the public interest, expedient, practicable, desirable, necessary or proper to carry out, wholly or partially, the original intention of the author of the public trust or the object for which the public trust was created, an application can

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be made to the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, for application cypres of the property, or income of the public trust or any of its portion.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER. Application of Funds by Cypres.

If there is a breach of trust or a declaration is necessary that a particular property is the property of a public trust, or a direction is required to recover the possession of such property, or a direction is required for the administration of any public trust, two or more persons, having an interest in the trust or the Charity Commissioner, can file a suit in the District Court or City Civil Court, Bombay, as the case may be, to obtain reliefs mentioned in the Act. If the Charity Commissioner refuses consent, an appeal lies to the Bombay Revenue Tribunal constituted under the Bombay Revenue Tribunal Act (XII of 1939). The Charity Commissioner can also file such a suit on his own motion.

Charity Commissioner to be Sole Trustee if Appointed as Trustee.

The Charity Commissioner may, with his consent be appointed as a trustee of a public trust by a Court or by the author of a trust, provided his appointment is made as a sole trustee. The Court is, however, not empowered to appoint the Charity Commissioner as a trustee of a religious public trust. In cases where the Charity Commissioner is appointed as trustee he may levy administrative charges on these trusts as prescribed in the Rules framed under the Act.

Inquiries by Assessors.

Inquiries regarding the registration of a public trust or regarding the loss caused to a public trust or public trusts registered under the previous Act, in consequence of the act or conduct of a trustee or any other person, have to be conducted with the aid of assessors not less than three and not more than five in number. The assessors have to be selected, as far as possible, from the religious denomination of the public trust to which the inquiry relates. The presence of assessors can, however, be dispensed with in inquiries where there is no contest. A list of assessors has to be prepared and published in the Official Gazette every three years.

Charity Commissioner and Charitable Endowments.

The Charity Commissioner is deemed to be and to have always been the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for the State appointed under the provisions of the Charitable Endowments Act, 1890.

In case of religious and charitable institutions and endowments which vest in or the management of which vests in the State Government, they are to be transferred and vested in the Committees of Management to be appointed by the State Government for each district and the members of the Committee will hold the position of trustees of the endowments within the meaning and for the purposes of the Act. The Charity Commissioner is invested with the power to require duties of these committees to be performed and to direct expenses in respect thereof to be paid from the funds belonging to the endowments.

CHAPTER 17.

Other Social Services.

CHARITY COMMISSIONER.

Punishment.

Contraventions of the Act amount to offences and are punishable with maximum fines ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 depending on the nature of contravention. The Charity Commissioner is the sole authority for instituting legal proceedings in the case of such contraventions.

ADMINISTRATION OF MANAGED ESTATES

MANAGED ESTATES.

On many occasions Government takes over the administration of estates of minors, lunatics and persons incapable of managing their own property. Prior to the merger of the district in the erstwhile Bombay State, the estates of minors and lunatics were taken over by Government administration under the provisions of the Central Provinces Court of Wards Act, 1899, and the other Central Act, the Guardians and Wards Act (VIII of 1890). The purpose behind this is to secure proper care and management of the estates concerned. In the case of persons incapable of managing their own property assumption of superintendence of the estate is undertaken, only when the estate is encumbered with debt or is mismanaged or when there is no one capable of taking proper care of it and the Government is of the opinion that it is expedient in the public interest to preserve the property of the person for the benefit of his family and the property is of such value that economic management agency is practicable.

In Amravati district, the Deputy Collector, Amravati, is responsible for the management of the estates taken over under the Court of Wards Act, and a clerk under him specially appointed for the purpose, either wholetime or part time, is directly responsible for the discharge of his duties.

Prior to 1951, the estates in Achalpur tahsil of Shri Raja Ratansingh Jahagirdar were under the management of the Court of Wards, Achalpur. The estate was relinquished under orders of the State Government of the ex-Central Provinces in April, 1951 Thereafter no estate has been taken over under Government management so far The floating assets and liabilities as in May, 1951, worked out to Rs. 21,659 and Rs. nil, respectively.

Court of Ward Act.

The Court of wards is empowered, with the previous sanction of the State Government, to assume the superintendence of the property of any landholder or of any person who is disqualified to manage his own property being (a) minor, (b) females declared by the District Court to be unfit to manage their own property, (c) persons declared by the District Court to be incapable of managing or unfit to manage their own property, and (d) persons adjudged by a competent Civil Court to be of unsound mind and incapable of managing their estates efficiently.

Guardians and Wards Act.

The Central Act, i.e., the Guardians and Wards Act, 1890, applies to the estates of minors with much the same provisions of the Central Provinces Court of Wards Act, 1899.

CHAPTER 18—PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

INTRODUCTION.

THE URGE TO ORGANISE VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS serving a social purpose is ingrained in human heart everywhere There are a number of such voluntary social organisations in Amravati district, serving the social needs of the people in a variety of ways. They not only complement and supplement governmental efforts in various fields but also cover areas of ameliorative service which government may not be in a position to cover. Their role in the educational, social and cultural life of the district is significant A few of them have done pioneering work in particular spheres of social activity, have won Government recognition, assistance and guidance because of their consistent commendable service and benign influence. The acceptance of 'Welfare State' as the aim of planning and development, has undoubtedly enlarged Governmental responsibility. However, this does not lessen the onus of the patriotic social workers.

For the realisation of a 'Welfare State' both must work in unison and harmony. Government, too, have increasingly recognised the importance of such institutions and have encouraged and utilised the agency of these institutions for the greater effectiveness of their own efforts. Their activities range from the eradication of leprosy to the uplift of the backward classes and cover many diverse fields. Most of these organisations work selflessly. They receive grants and donations from Government, municipalities and citizens. A succession of public spirited and sincere workers, who work in honorary capacities has facilitated the working of such organisations and rendered them dynamic.

PUBLIC LIFE.

Amravati has a remarkable tradition of active public life The district never lagged behind the main currents in the national life and the national liberation movement. Since the late fifties of the last century. the leaders in the district played a role in all the freedom movements. Annual session of the National Congress of 1897 was held at Amravati. The late Dadasaheb Khaparde who played an important role at the Congress session shaped the public life of the district. His active association with Lokmanya Tilak and his hold on the people of the district was an important event in the public life of the district. Besides Dadasaheb Khaparde, R. B. Mudholkar and Sir Moropant Joshi

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Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

PUBLIC LIFE.

strived for enlightenment of the masses. The late Veer Vamanrao Joshi and N. R. Bamangaonkar developed and propagated national sentiment through their dramas and other literary works. During the Non-Co-operation Movement and the Quit India Movement the district had its own share of excitement.

Shri Sant Tukdoji Maharaj, the celebrated national saint and singer, has contributed immensely towards the enrichment of the public life of Amravati. Through public programmes he is doing the work of mass education. The Gurudev Seva Mandal which is headed by the saint-singer is doing remarkable work in the field of social education and welfare work.

Newspapers.

Public life of the district has been enriched by newspapers which voice popular grievances from time to time. There are eleven journals in the district which purvey district news and national events and educate public opinion. Of these two are dailies, two bi-weeklies, three weeklies, three fortnightlies and one monthly. The *Udya*, the oldest bi-weekly journal started by the late Khaparde, was established in 1920. The *Hindusthan* (1949) and the *Suprabhat* (1960) (both dailies) claim good reputation. The other journals are: the *Nav Vidarbha* (1956), the *Jyoti Prakash* (1949), the *Watchal* (1963), the *Lokdarshan* (1963), the *Shikshan Margdarshan* (1950), the *Pragatik Shikshan* (1963), the *Jeewan* (1953), the *Sahakari Vidarbha* (1959), the *Gurudev Mozari* (1943), the *Awaz* and the *Amravati Times*. All these journals except the last two which are in Urdu, are in Marathi language. A majority of these newspapers have found a more congenial home at Amravati. Besides these local journals, a number of English and Marathi daily newspapers from Nagpur and Bombay have found popular patronage in Amravati. These include, the *Nagpur Times*, the *Hitawada*, the *Tarun Bharat*, the *Maharashtra* (all published from Nagpur), the *Times of India*, the *Free Press Journal*, the *Maharashtra Times* and the *Loksatta* (all published from Bombay).

Representation.

In 1962 general elections, the Amravati district had one Parliamentary Constituency and 8 Constituencies for State Legislature out of which one was reserved for scheduled castes.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Educational Institutions

Ideal Education Society, Achalpur.

Ideal Education Society of Achalpur was established in 1935 and was registered in 1940 with the objective of spreading and promoting primary and secondary education. The society conducts a girls' high school.

The school is housed in its own building. The assets and property of the institution were valued at Rs. 40,000 in 1962. The income of the institution amounted to Rs. 23,906 in 1961-62, of which the government grant was Rs. 11,202 and the income from the fees, was Rs. 9,295.

The expenditure incurred during 1961-62, was Rs. 24,058. In 1961-62 the school had 234 students on its roll.

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VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Educational Institutions.

Rural Institute, Amravati.

According to the recommendations of the Committee on Higher Education for Rural Areas the Union Ministry of Education decided to start ten rural institutes at different places in India (1955-56). Shri Shivaji Education Society of Amravati started the Rural Institute under the auspices of Shri Shivaji Loka Vidyapitha, Amravati, in 1956. The institute was established with the motive of filling the gaps in university education and the curriculum was arranged in such a manner as to focus the attention on rural life. The students, trained here, are expected to meet the increasing needs of various governmental agencies in their efforts to fulfil the various facets of the development of the rural areas.

The institute conducts the following courses:—

(1) Three year diploma course in rural service,

(2) Three year diploma course in civil and rural engineering,

(3) Two year certificate course in agricultural science, and

(4) Preparatory course.

Home science was introduced as an optional group in 1958 and 'Village industries' also another optional group in 1961. The diplomas are recognised by Central and State Governments and the Universities.

The institute is equipped with a library containing a large number of books and is provided with a reading room where periodicals in English, Hindi and Marathi are kept. The hostel of the institute accommodates 200 students in a modern two-storeyed building. Adequate number of scholarships are provided to the poor and deserving students.

The day-to-day administration of the institution is looked after by the governing body, which had seven members in 1963-64. The value of the assets was Rs. 40 lakhs in 1963, while the annual expenditure was about Rs. 3,25,000 The institution receives grant from Government and other sources too.

Shivaji Education Society, Amravati.

Shri Shivaji Education Society, one of the leading educational institutions of Berar, was established in 1932. It was founded with the objective of making special efforts for the progress of education in Berar and elsewhere, particularly for the poor and backward classes and to encourage women's education by establishing social institutions like widow's homes and nursing schools, etc. It also aims at encouraging physical culture and conducts institutions meant for physical education. Besides, it has started a printing press and has undertaken the publication of books, periodicals, journals and other literature.

The members of the society are classified as (1) Patron-in-chief, (2) Patron, (3) vice-Patron, (4) donor, (5) vice-donor, (6) Sympathiser, (7) life member and (8) ordinary member. The 'general body' consists of all the members of the society. The executive body manages the day-to-day affairs of the society.

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Educational Institutions.
Shivaji Education Society, Amravati.

In 1954-55, the society was running 60 institutions in which 9,150 students were studying; it employed 500 persons and its annual expenditure amounted to Rs. 27,77,872. In 1963-64, the society conducted 216 institutions in which 33,987 students were studying; it employed 1,882 persons and its expenditure approximated Rs. 1,26,82,599. The number of students staying in hostels was 3,042. The value of the assets and property of the society is estimated at Rs. 4.75 crores. The society receives grant from Government and donations from other sources also.

The society conducts 8 Arts Colleges, 5 Commerce Colleges, 2 Science Colleges, 11 Training Colleges, one Agriculture College, one Law College, 39 hostels, 40 lower secondary schools and other institutions like night schools, girls' high schools, *vyayamshalas*, medical aid institutions, *anathalayas* and institutions for rural studies.

Veershaiv Shikshan prasarak Mandal, Amravati.

The cause of education is not complete by the mere establishment of schools and high schools. Sometimes, it is not possible for the students coming from poor families to pay the fees and incur other incidental expenses. Veershaiv Shikshan Prasarak Mandal at Amravati helps the students by making arrangements for the payment of their fees and purchase of text books for them. The institution was established as early as in 1916. A working committee of eight persons looks after the day-to-day administration of the institution.

In 1963-64, the total funds of the institution amounted to Rs. 20,000 and annual expenditure stood at Rs. 2,000. It received grant from the municipality. The institution has so far distributed Rs. 30,000 in the form of help to the students. Lectures of learned scholars are also arranged by the institution for the benefit of students. The institution has constructed a hostel where needy students are accommodated.

Vidarbha Ayurveda Mahavidyalaya, Amravati.

Vidarbha Ayurveda Mahavidyalaya, Amravati, was founded in 1931 with the aim of propagation and promotion of *ayurveda*. In 1959, the college was affiliated to Nagpur University and subsequently received recognition from State Government.

The college is managed by Vidarbha Ayurveda Prasarak Mandal, Amravati, which consists of patrons, fellows and associates. The day-to-day administration of the *Mandal*, is looked after by a managing body.

The assets of the institution amounted to Rs. 5,50,000 in 1963. The annual income was Rs. 40,000 in the same year and the expenditure totalled Rs. 1,10,000. The State Government gives one-third of the total expenditure per annum as grant. Central Government has donated Rs. 4 lakhs towards the construction of the building of the institution.

The college is well-equipped with an operation theatre, a library with 1,200 books and a laboratory for research in the qualities of herbs and shrubs. It has a well-furnished hostel and

a separate biochemistry department. The institution runs a hospital and a maternity home and patients are charged at a nominal rate.

The Maharogi Seva Mandal situated in Tapowan near Amravati, ranks as the first and the foremost of the institutions that have enriched the social life of Amravati. The advance of medical science in the world, claims the hope that leprosy can be totally cured but still common man looks upon it suspiciously as a contagious disease. The number of lepers in India is considerable and as such the problem deserves careful attention. Leprosy has a special place in humanitarian outlook, as leper is one of the most neglected, most detested and most ill-treated of the unlucky human brethren. There are some institutions and a few public workers in India which have been working for the uplift of leprosy patients for some years in the past. To help them in their fight against leprosy, Vidarbha Maharogi Seva Mandal was established in 1948. It gives shelter to the lepers in Jagadamba Kushta Niwas. The building of the asylum was completed in 1950. The inmates of the asylum numbered about five hundred in 1963 and included besides lepers blind persons, T.B. patients and life convict prisoners. In the last 12 years, 2,200 patients were admitted to the asylum and discharged after being cured.

In the case of leprosy, early detection of infection is necessary for the eradication of the disease. As the patient is unwilling to disclose the infection out of shame and fear, the situation aggravates further. The patients, admitted in the asylum, are in advanced stage of malady. The disease must be checked in the initial stage and hence surveys were conducted in eighty villages within the radius of 16.093 km (ten miles) from Amrāvati and the health of the villagers was examined in 1951. The utility of such surveys was appreciated by Government and it undertook them in various districts. A spinning and weaving department was started in the asylum in 1957, with a view of keeping patients engaged and to making them self-reliant. The marriages of patients, cured of leprosy, were encouraged.

It was found that the people in general held wrong and groundless ideas about leprosy. A Marathi fortnightly named 'Jeevan' was started in 1952 to carry on the propaganda for removing these misconceptions. Several pamphlets and thousands of placards were published by the Mandal.

In 1953, the Mandal undertook a random survey of leprosy in the eight districts of Vidarbha region in the then Madhya Pradesh. Similar surveys were conducted in the development blocks and national extension blocks of Vidarbha The figures collected in this survey revealed that the percentage of leprosy patients in the villages ranged between 0.2 per cent and 10 per cent. Fifteen villages near Shendurjana in Chandur tahsil were selected for eradication of leprosy and the control unit of the Mandal was started. The incidence of leprosy in urban areas was also studied by the Mandal by conducting surveys.

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Welfare Organisations.

Maharogi Seva Mandal, Amravati.

In 1954, the Mandal prepared some resolutions for the uplift of leprosy patients and copies of these resolutions were sent to the various leprosy asylums in India to get them passed. The first conference of leprosy patients on all-India basis, was held at Tapowan under the presidentship of Dr. Issac Santra, the famous anti-leprosy worker of Orissa. Similar conferences of leprosy patients on district level were organised by the Mandal at Akola and Khamgaon in 1955 and 1959 respectively. To mitigate the prejudice against the disease, various books on leprosy problems were published which helped in changing the attitude of public considerably. A tailoring department was opened, which trained the patients in an additional vocation and provided sufficient clothing to the inmates of the asylum.

To rehabilitate patients discharged from asylums, about 202.33 hectares (five hundred acres) of land in Murtizapur taluka of Akola district was acquired and a colony was founded there in 1955. The Mandal started Mitra Sangh in order to give opportunity to the thoughtful and sympathetic people to help the cause of anti-leprosy work. For the untainted children of leprosy patients, a Montessori school was also started. In addition to the various handicrafts started by the Mandal from time to time carpentry, smithy and shoemaking were taught due to the growing desire of the patients for light physical work. Some of the juvenile convicts in the remand homes of Maharashtra State are leprosy patients. As there are no facilities for treatment of such patients the responsibility of accommodating them is accepted by the Mandal.

Operations of various types are performed frequently and an operation theatre named 'Dadheechee Shalya Bhawan' was opened in December 1957.

To provide some work to the weak and disabled leprosy patients and make them self-supporting, the Mandal started a printing press to give them such work as composing, folding and binding.

The unit of boy scouts conducted by the Mandal was officially recognized by the Scout Commissioner of Maharashtra State in 1959. Shivaji Vyayam Mandir with necessary tools and equipment was opened for the convenience of the patients who are cured.

By 1960, the Government had also taken up the schemes for the control of the disease and started their own SET (Survey, Education and Treatment) centres and control units.

An X-ray machine was purchased with the grant given by Sir Sorab Tata Trust for the purpose and was installed on 1st October 1960.

Separate residential quarters were built for the blind leprosy patients in 1961. A hospital was built at Pohora, a small hill station about 16.10 km. (10 miles) from Amravati. Leprosy patients have a low vitality and as a result they suffer from Tuberculosis. To segregate them from other patients a separate ward was built in the asylum.

Maharogi Seva Mandal, Amravati.

The institution encouraged the inmates in acquiring proficiency in various arts. A music school, named 'Tagore Music School', was opened to teach them music.

The foundation stone of a technical school named 'Malviya Vidyalaya' was laid in 1962 to provide education in various handicrafts and technical subjects.

The affairs of the Mandal are looked after by a general body and a governing body. The latter had a membership of 12 in 1963.

The value of property and assets of the institution amounted to Rs. 13,78,888 in 1962-63. The institution received grant from Government and donations from the public. The donations amounted to Rs. 30,120 for the year ended on 31st March 1963. The capitation grants for the various activities of the institution, stood at Rs. 84,142 in the same year. Amongst other prominent sources of income may be mentioned, the rehabilitation centres at Murtizapur, grant for the technical school and sale of various articles produced by the cottage industries and handicrafts. The main items of expenditure were maintenance of patients, expenses on medicines and dispensary and expenses on office and hospital establishment which accounted for Rs. 86,205 in 1962-63. The total annual expenditure in the same year stood at Rs. 2,16,769.

Sarvodaya Mandal, Karajgaon.

Sarvodaya Mandal at Karajgaon is conducted from the funds donated by Maharashtra Gandhi Smarak Nidhi. It was established in January 1955. It aims at propagating the teachings of Mahatma Gandhi and removal of illiteracy among the masses.

The value of the fixed property and assets of the institution was Rs. 50,000 in 1963. It received a donation of Rs. 15,400 from Maharashtra Gandhi Smarak Nidhi and a grant from Government in 1963.

The activities of the institution are multifarious. It runs for example, a hostel known as *Sarvodayakuti*, which admits persons irrespective of caste or creed. It runs a health centre which treats patients and gives lessons on the importance of hygiene and cleanliness. It also conducts *Balwadi*, the Montessori school, and a technical school where the students are taught spinning, weaving and dyeing and agriculture. Students are also imparted the technical know-how of khadi and village industries like oil-crushing, pottery, bee-keeping, soap-making and making of palm-gur and neera. The library, known as 'Sarvodaya', contains 600 books, magazines and periodicals. Hindi, the national language, is taught in the 'Rashtrabhasha Kendra'. The institution also devotes attention to '*Bhoodan*' and '*Gram Safai*' movements.

Shri Gurudev Seva Mandal, Mojhre.

Akhil Bharatiya Shri Gurudev Seva Mandal situated in Mojhre village was founded in 1943 under the guidance and direction of Rashtra Sant Shri Tukadoji Maharaj, with the object of infusing and inspiring the social workers to devote themselves to the service of society.

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Public Life and Voluntary Social Service Organisations.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Welfare Organisations.

Shri Gurudev Seva Mandal, Mojhre.

Towards the attainment of its aims and objectives, the channels and avenues utilised by the institution are diverse and manifold. They include congregational prayers, physical training, propagation of ayurveda, educational and literary activities, *bhajan* and community singing, debates and religious discourses, introducing improved methods of agriculture, dairy farming, *ram dhoon,* propagation of universal brotherhood and elimination of untouchability, emancipation of the backward classes and aboriginal tribes (like Korku), marriage reforms, assistance to orphans and delinquents and establishment of cottage and village industries. Ashrams to train the *pracharaks* have been established at Gurukunj, Mojhre and Yavli in Amravati district, Chandapur and Malkhed in Yeotmal district, Amgaon in Bhandara district, Chimur in Chanda district, Udama in Betul district and Khapa in Chhindwada district. There are branches of Seva Mandal at Poona, Bombay, Nasik, Indore, Ahmedabad, Nadiad, Baroda, Jhansi, Bhokar, Nanded Malkhed, Himayatnagar, Jalna and Aurangabad. Attempts are made to re-organise village arts and crafts with the aid of indigenous and modern tools. Students are taught to prepare soap, match-box and foot-wear. Training is given for the maintenance of good health and sturdy physique. Medicines are made at the ashram pharmacy from indigenous plants and herbs and are given at a nominal cost of 6 paise per head per day. Literary writings of saints and spiritualists are published by the Mandal. The Mandal's orphanage provides for the upbringing of orphan and destitute children. Its libraries and reading room provide opportunities to individuals for research work.

The management of the Institution is looked after by a General Council and the Executive Committee. The General Council comprises life workers, honorary workers, members of the State bodies, women secretaries and editors of monthly magazines.

The assets of the institution were valued at Rs. 9,36,238 in the year 1961-62. During the same year, its expenditure stood at Rs. 6,00,011. The government grant approximated Rs. 2,22,387 in the same year.

Shriman Shri Wallabhji and Shrimati Dhannibai Chandak Trust, Amravati.

This trust was created by Takhatmal Shriwallabh and Company of Amravati in August 1944 in response to the desire of Shrimati Dhannibai Chandak who herself managed the firm from 1918 to 1946.

With a view to encourage teaching of Sanskrit, a Sanskrit Pathshala was opened and a chair of *Vyakaranacharya* (grammarian) in Sanskrit was created in 1948-49.

The trust sends every year to Varanasi some amount for distributing clothes and food to the scholars who have devoted their life for animating the Indian heritage of knowledge by a deep study of *Vedant,* Philosophy, *Vyakaran, Jyotish* and *Nyaya.*

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Welfare Organisations.

Scholarships are also granted every year to the students studying different professional courses. Such scholarships were granted to 74 students till 1961.

A 'Geeta Class' and various activities like staging of dramas, arranging essay competitions and debates are also organised by the institution.

Vidarbha Adivasi Seva Mandal, Paratwada.

Vidarbha Adivasi Seva Mandal at Paratwada (Taluka: Achalpur) was established in 1955. The institution aims at providing lodging and boarding facilities to the students of scheduled tribes and give them liberal education. It runs a hostel at Paratwada and the number of students in 1962 was 22. The institution is governed by a general body of seven members. The secretary is entrusted with the day-to-day management of the hostel.

Vidarbha Harijan Seva Sangh, Morshi.

Vidarbha Harijan Sevak Sangh at Morshi is a branch of the Maharashtra Harijan Sevak Sangh established in 1933. The institution aims at the eradication of untouchability and the progress of the so-called untouchables in the social and educational fields.

The provincial board of Vidarbha Harijan Sevak Sangh comprises 15 members, including one chairman, one secretary and 13 members coming from the various districts of Vidarbha. It has been receiving grant from Government since 1937.

At present 90 per cent of its expenditure on propaganda is met with by grants from the Government. The rest is covered by donations from municipality, Gandhi Smarak Nidhi and the local inhabitants. The institution runs a hostel for boys at Morshi which was established in 1955. In 1963, the hostel had 27 students. The grant-in-aid amounted to Rs. 39,647 in 1962-63.

Welfare of Women.

Bhagini Samaj, Badnera.

Bhagini Samaj was established at Badnera primarily for the welfare of women and was founded in 1936. It aims at imparting training to women in subjects like stitching, cane-working and cooking. It also teaches them Hindi, Marathi and English languages. The institution, moreover, takes part and extends its co-operation in all the local, national and international movements conducted in the cause of the emancipation of womenkind from the present social and economic drudgeries.

The Samaj is governed by a body which looks after its day-to-day management. The subscribers constitute the general body which appoints two persons as trustees to look after the property and assets of the institution. The meeting of the general body is held at least twice in a year.

Since 1954, the institution has been running a Montessori class (Bal Mandir) for children. It also runs a library and arranges series of lectures on a variety of subjects. The festivals of *Makar Sankraman, Kojagiri Pournima, Sharadotsava* are also celebrated.

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The annual income and expenditure of the institution were Rs. 1,635 and Rs. 1,577 respectively in 1961. It received grants from the municipality, the Social Welfare Board and the Government.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Welfare of Women.

Following is an account of *Kasturba Gandhi Rashtriya Smarak Trust,* Madhan.

Kasturba Gandhi Rashtriya Smarak Trust, Madhan.

The *Bal Mandir* (Montessori class for children) was started by the institution in 1954. It had eight branches and four centres at different villages in the nearby area and one *sevashram* for the backward tribes at Gondwadi in Melghat tahsil.

The institution conducts the Mahila Shikshan Vibhag, the Arogya Mandir, the Balak Mandir, the Kanyashram and a secondary school (up to 10th standard).

Till 1960, classes for training *gramsevikas* were conducted with the help of the Social Welfare Board. From then, adult literacy classes are conducted by the Social Welfare Board. A large number of women attend these classes.

The *Arogya Mandir* consists of a dispensary, a maternity home and a hospital with twenty beds.

Kanyashram runs a hostel for girls.

The secondary school run by the institution provides education up to 10th standard. The students are also taught weaving in the school.

Adiwasi Sevashram, Gondwadi.

Adiwasi Sevashram at Gondwadi was established in 1951 where a health centre and a Balwadi are run for the welfare of the scheduled tribes.

The institution is administered by an advisory committee and a managing committee.

The institution receives grants from Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, the State and the Central Government and the municipality. The expenditure of the institution stood at Rs. 90,190 in the year 1962-63.

Matru Seva Sangh, Amravati.

"Mote Maternity Home", Amravati, a branch of Matru Seva Sangh, Nagpur, was established in 1925. The Sangh aims at providing pre-natal treatment as well as medical advice to women and to run a maternity home with adequate equipment. In the case of poor women, the treatment during the confinement is free. The institution also provides a nursing course for women.

A working committee of 11 members looks after the day-to-day management of the institution. The office-bearers of the committee are the president, the secretary and the medical officer.

In 1963, the value of property and assets of the institution amounted to Rs. 61,790. The annual expenditure stood at Rs. 20,000. The institution receives a grant of Rs. 2,000 per annum from the Central Social Welfare Board and Rs. 250 from the municipality. During 1962-63, 445 women received pre-natal treatment and 360 delivery cases were attended to.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Welfare of Women.

Prabodhan Geeta Mandal, Daryapur.

Prabodhan Geeta Mandal at Daryapur was established in December 1937 for the progress of women in cultural and social fields. It aims at propagating the teachings of Geeta amongst women. For this purpose, the institution conducts classes where discourses are held on the Geeta. *Geeta-jayanti, Makar Sunkraman, Dasnavami* and other religious festivals are celebrated by the institution and *bhajans* as well as *kirtans* are arranged. The institution runs a Balak Mandir, a tailoring class and a library.

The institution has a building. The annual income of the institution stood at Rs. 4,500 in 1962-63.

The *Balak Mandir* had 65 children on its roll in 1962-63. Its library contains over 700 books. It receives grant from the Divisional Welfare Board. In 1962-63, the grant amounted to Rs. 640.

Sharda Udyog Mandir, Amravati.

Sharada Udyog Mandir, Amravati, founded in December, 1950, is a charitable institution established with the aim of giving economic aid to hard pressed middle class women, especially widows and destitutes, by giving them training in various crafts and vocations such as tailoring, embroidery, bakery and manufacturing of lozenges, toys, etc. The successful candidate in tailoring is given diploma which is recognised by the Directorate of Technical Education. The beneficiaries of the society numbered 100 in 1963.

The movable and immovable property of the institution was worth about Rs. 25,000 in 1963. The income in the same year, stood at Rs. 37,000 including Government grant of Rs. 7,000.

The life members of the institutions numbered 75 in 1963 while the ordinary members were 500. The institution opened a Balak Mandir in 1955, where children below six years of working mothers, are admitted.

The Mandir publishes '*Wagvina*', a monthly magazine in Hindi.

Shrimati Dhapeebai Jain Maternity Home, Amravati.

Opened in 1951 by one Mr. Dhanaraj Kesarimal Munot in memory of his mother, the late Shrimati Dhapeebai Jain, this maternity home aims to provide medical aid to children and pre-natal treatment and advice to women. The income from founder's property is assigned to meet the expenses of the home, and a board of trustees looks after its management.

The estimated value of the assets of the institution was Rs. 1,00,000 in 1964.

The expenditure for the year 1961, amounted to Rs. 26,084. The institution received grants from the State Government and the Municipality. In 1961, the grant from Government amounted to Rs. 7,500 and that from Municipality stood at Rs. 500.

The Home had 22 beds in 1953, and 28 in 1962. The delivery cases attended to were 305 in 1953 whereas the number rose to [illegible] in 1962. The number of patients treated was 554 in 1962. The expenditure on free beds was Rs. 3,731 in 1952 and Rs. 15,512 in 1962.

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The Baptist Mission of Central India had an information centre at Achalpur known as the Christi Sahitya Kendra established in March 1962. The centre provides pamphlets and literature on Christian religion and other relevant information. The expenditure of the Kendra was Rs. 1,000 in 1962. It does not receive any grant from the government.

Mahaweer Sarvajanik Vachanalaya, Badnera.

Mahaweer Sarvajanik Vachanalaya at Badnera was established in 1951. The library is open to all.

The value of the assets and property of the institution stands at Rs. 5,000. The institution received grants from the municipality (amounting to Rs. 250 in 1961) and the Government. The annual expenditure stood at Rs. 1,500, in 1961.

The institution celebrates days of national importance and special functions are arranged on these days.

Nagar Vachanalaya, Amravati.

Nagar Vachanalaya at Amravati was established as early as 1867 for the diffusion of knowledge among the general public. Its activities include circulation of books, newspapers and magazines, conducting study circles and arranging lectures and debates.

The members of the vachanalaya constitute the general body. It elects the managing committee which executes the decisions of the general body.

Its assets and property were valued at Rs. 1,44,448 in 1962-63. During the same year, its income was Rs. 23,690 and its expenditure amounted to Rs. 26,152. It received a grant of Rs. 500 from the Education Department in 1962-63 and of Rs. 1,000 from Amravati Municipality.

The number of books in the library was 13,782 in 1963 including 4,966 English, 8,198 Marathi and 618 Hindi books. Other periodicals included dailies, weeklies, bi-weeklies, fortnightly newspapers with magazines and quarterlies. They numbered 136 in 1963. A separate magazine section was opened in 1962. The reference section has books useful to the post-graduate university students.

Sarvajanik Vachanalaya, Paratwada.

Sarvajanik Vachanalaya at Paratwada, was established in 1866. It has a free reading room and a library. Books are issued to the subscribing members, who numbered 91 in 1961-62.

The fixed property and assets of the institution include the building and furniture worth Rs. 25,000 and Rs. 3,000 respectively. The library possesses books on diverse subjects and rare books.

The library received Government and municipal grants amounting to Rs. 263 and Rs. 240 respectively in 1961. The total income in the same year, was Rs. 1,675 while the expenditure stood at Rs. 1,803.

Shree Ram Trust, Amravati.

The trust was established on 12th February 1959 by Ramratan Shriwallabh Chandak with the object of giving impetus to the study and preachings of *Vedant, Vijnyana* and *Gita* with special emphasis on *Karma Yoga* and *Dharma Shastra.*

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Public Libraries. *Shree Ram Trust, Amravati.*

The total value of the property of the trust amounts to Rs. 1,35,000 and consists of Shree Ram Mandir, Mangal Karyalaya (previously known as Dharmshala), Mohini Mangal (new building recently constructed) and Deeparchan Sadan.

The trustees work free for the trust and one of them acts as managing trustee.

'Geeta Mandal' was formed and three series of lectures were arranged (in November 1956, April 1957 and in September 1957) on the philosophy of 'Gita'.

A sub-committee of seven persons was established in 1958 to arrange the '*Suvichar Vyakhyanmala*' and 30 lectures were delivered in this series.

Miscellaneous Institutions.

Hanuman Vyayamshala, Paratwada.

Hanuman Vyayamshala, Paratwada, was established in 1916. The institution conducts classes and trains teachers in physical education. It holds various exhibitions and competitions in games.

The assets including its building and other equipment were valued at Rs. 16,000 in 1961-62. The institution is managed by a governing body of 4 members. It did not receive government grant and its only source of income was donations.

Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amravati.

Shree Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amravati, was founded by Anant Krishna Vaidya and Ambadas Krishna Vaidya in 1914 as a small gymnastic club. The institution has done pioneering work of organising the movement of physical education when there was a general apathy for physical education.

The founders had two objectives: to link up the movement of physical education with the national freedom movement and to modernise and systematise the traditional Indian system of exercise by incorporating in it the Western methods of physical education.

In 1918-19, the club was renamed as the Hanuman Vyayam Mandir. The institution as it grew from strength to strength was reorganised into Shree Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal.

The efficacy of the system of physical education that was being evolved in this institution was tested in the various gymnastic tournaments. The success of its athletes in the C. P. and Berar Olympic Meets held in 1925, encouraged the organisers to launch upon a new scheme of popularising these exercises and games on a countrywide basis. The idea of holding short term physical training classes during the summer vacation at Amravati was devised and implemented. These classes are being run every year almost uninterruptedly since 1925 and more than 15,000 young men and women, from different parts of the country have been trained in this institution.

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Miscellaneous Institutions.

Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amravati.

The Mandal later turned its attention to the study of some of the Western and Eastern gymnastic systems and a few of its life members were deputed twice to attend the International Scout Jamborees held in Europe. During 1921—30, its activities did not remain confined to the solitary field of physical education but became associated with the national freedom movement. The workers of the Mandal were also taken up on most of the committees which were formed to prepare the scheme of physical education. The teams of the Mandal visited important towns of most of the Indian provinces and gave demonstrations of their performances. The Mandal organised a special wing of social workers under the title 'Civil Defence Force', in 1932 and this wing further attracted young men from different parts of the country. The members of this wing later supplied personnel to the Government organisations such as Home Guards. Urban Infantry and Territorial Army. The first All-India Physical Education Conference was organised by the Mandal in October 1946 which was a great success. The conference resulted in the establishment of a permanent organisation, *viz.*, the National Association of Physical Education and Recreation in India. The members of the Mandal attended the gymnastic meets held in Europe in 1936, 1949 and 1953.

The Mandal devoted its energies to the rejuvenation of Indian elements in gymnastics like rhythm, callisthenics, uniformity of mass action, graceful mass performance and uniform exercises to all parts of body. It brought into play the element of music as a co-adjunct of physical training and so phased the different indigenous exercises as can be practised age-wise. The Mandal framed a syllabus of the subjects of physical training for which a number of items from traditional exercises and games were selected and remodelled. The system has become popular in India. It is also to the credit of the Mandal that it has started a women's wing and has tried to do away with the prejudices against physical education for women. It has established the Indian Institute for Diploma in Physical Culture and Recreation in 1946 with a view to bringing about a synthesis of eastern and western methods.

The Mandal has its own building accommodating its office, the local gymnasium, the library, lecture hall and a store for apparatus, equipment and instruments. The Mandal owns a printing press with a building and has brought out a few publications on physical education. The Mandal maintains a dairy and a small poultry farm.

The management of the Mandal is looked after by three bodies, *viz.*, (1) the general body, (2) the managing body and (3) the executive committee.

The assets of the institution were valued at Rs. 1,09,000 in 1962. The annual income and expenditure stood at Rs. 53,254 and Rs. 72,027 respectively in 1962-63. The grants from various sources stood at Rs. 21,378 in the same year.

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VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS.

Miscellaneous Institutions.

Backward Class Student's Hostels.

Numerous benevolent institutions and charitable organisations are working for the welfare of those who belong to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in Amravati district. Some of them are branches of institutions, established elsewhere. Most of the institutions were established after 1950.

The uplift of these communities (viz., backward classes) is sought to be achieved in many ways. The Government gives them special facilities for receiving education at all stages. They get freeships and scholarships which enable them to complete their courses.

Taking into consideration the poor financial conditions of students, grants-in-aid are given by the Social Welfare Department*. The hostel inmates are provided with lodging, boarding and other essential amenities.

The following table gives the information about the various hostels in Amravati district. The hostels are meant for secondary school children.

BACKWARD CLASS STUDENTS' HOSTELS IN AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of Hostel and location (1)	Year of establishment (2)	Year of recognition (3)	Sanctioned strength of students (4)
1. Adarsha Vidyarthi Griha, Amravati	1933	1959-60	20
2. Shri Ram Education Society's Hostel, Takarkheda Sambhu (Tal. Amravati)	1956	1959-60	39
3. Depressed Classes Students' Hostel, Warud (Tal. Morshi).	1955	1959-60	30
4. Harijan Vasti Griha, Morshi ..	1955	1959-60	21
5. Dalitodhar Boarding, Paratwada ..	1953	1959-60	20
6. Shri Gurudeo Backward Classes Hostel, Mozari (Tal. Chandur Rly.)	1959	1960-61	25
7. Ogale Smarak Vasti Griha, Amravati	1960	1961-62	20
8. Vidarbha Adiwasi Sewa Mandal, Achalpur Camp.	1955	1955-56	20
9. Adiwasi Hostel (*Chhatrawas*), Amravati.	1955	1959-60	30
10. Lok-Sewa Chhatralaya, Chikhaldara (Tal. Melghat).	1960	1961-62	20
11. Adiwasi Hostel Shendurjana Ghat, (Tal. Melghat).	1957	1959-60	25

*Thus in 1960-61, the "Shri Ram Education Society" at Takarkheda Sambhu received a grant of Rs. 18,750 for building a Hostel. In the same way in 1961-62, the Backward Class Hostel at Mozari also received a grant of Rs. 12,479.

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Miscellaneous Institutions.

Friends' Club.

Samarthanand Samaj.

The Friends' Club at Badnera was started in 1962 with a view to promote a feeling of "corporate life" amongst its members. The Club had 32 members in 1962. It offers them facilities to play such games as badminton, table-tennis, bridge, etc., in its own premises.

The Anand Samaj which was originally started in 1902 and the Samartha Samaj, started in 1912, were merged in 1921 to form a new body, *viz.*, the Samarthanand Samaj. The main object of the Samaj is to awaken political consciousness amongst the people. It started the 'Deshbandhudas Vachanalaya' in 1924.

CHAPTER 19 — PLACES

ACHALPUR CITY.

Acalpūr City is the headquarters of Acalpūr tahsil and is situated at a height of about 366 metres (1200') above sea-level. It lies more than 48.280 km. (30 miles) to the north-west of Amrāvatī, the district headquarters and has a population of 36,538 as per the 1961 Census. The town was formerly known as Ellicpūr. Its ancient name has recently been restored to it. The town was fortified in the days of its early Muslim rulers by a huge and solid rampart wall of masonry with four gates. The fortifications are still in good condition. The names of the respective gates are *Dulhā* gate, *Tondgāṅv* gate, *Bundelpurā* gate and *Hirāpurā* gate. Near the Dulhā gate there is a window known as *Dulhā Khiḍkī.*

Water-works

In modern times no works have been undertaken for the supply of water. Water is mostly obtained from wells and small rivulets Sarpan and Bican which flow through the town. However, the Public Health and Engineering Department of the Government has prepared a plan to provide the city with tap water-supply. There is still in existence, though no longer in working order, an underground conduit of earthen pipes through which the oldest quarter of the town (that between the Dulhā Darvāza and the Barkul gate) was formerly supplied with water from the Bican. In order to make a reservoir, a dam was constructed on the river Bican at a spot above the city. It is said that these water-works were constructed in the reign of Ahmad Śāh Wali Bahamani (A.H. 829, A.D. 1425). The pipe-line of these water-works is heavily silted and now it is inoperative.

Trade and Manufactures.

In the heyday of its prosperity, with a lavish court in the midst, Acalpūr was an important centre of cotton and silk manufactures, and had a reputation also for wood-carving and stone-work which is borne out by the remnants of the old royal palaces and the court. To-day the latter industry is almost extinct, and those of weaving and dyeing, though their followers are still numerous, are steadily on the decline. In recent years, however, two co-operative societies for the manufacture of cotton materials have been formed. The carpets made here, though rough, are of a strong texture and find a ready sale all over the district; *khadis, rumāls, pagḍīs* and *paṭkās,* and saris with silk borders are also produced, but the trade is in doldrums for the

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earnings of a *Kosṭī* not only do not exceed those of an unskilled workman, but are actually less and his goods are being steadily ousted from the market by those of the powerloom. The *al* dyeing of Acalpūr was formerly famous, but the trade now is extinct. The castes connected with these industries are the first to exhibit signs of distress in times of scarcity and require the promptest attention. A good many people of this community have given up the traditional industry of their forefathers and taken to agriculture and other trades which promise better returns. To-day the most important industry as elsewhere is that of raw cotton. A cotton mill known as the Vidarbha and Berar Mills, was established in 1926 and now affords employment to over 2,000 workers both skilled and unskilled. Raw cotton from many villages around Acalpūr is brought here for sale, there being a big cotton market at Acalpūr.

Suburbs.

In the village lists and settlement papers Acalpūr appears as divided into eleven *khels* or *munds*, each of which bears a Hindu name, being that of the family holding the *paṭelki*, e.g., Khel Japmāḷī. Khel Trimbak Nārāyan, Khel Tikal, Khel Gummet and the like. The history of present-day Acalpūr, however, is distinctly Muhammedan, and this is reflected as one might expect in the nomenclature of the place which was until recently called Ellicpūr. The town was at one time surrounded by 54 *purās* or suburbs, of which about 35 exist to the present day, and the names of nearly all are of Musalmān origin. All suburbs are within the municipal limits. A few of the more important ones are Śamastpurā formed by Śamast Khān in 1724, Sultānpurā by Sultān Khān about the same time, Anvarpurā named after Anvar Khatun, Salābat Khān's wife, Nāmdār Ganj, Naśibpurā, Abbāspurā, Jivanpurā, and Raikabah, the last named being the headquarters of a bazar formed by Salābat Khān to accompany him on his military expeditions. There is no doubt that Acalpūr was in the past a very large and prosperous city, and is said to have contained at one time as many as 40,000 houses. The number has now touched a low level of 8,000. Its prosperity depended upon two things. the presence of the court and the position of the city at one end of what must always have been a considerable, if not one of the most important, trade routes through the hills to Northern India. The court has vanished and with it the prosperity of the town and the railway has diverted all trade elsewhere. The former importance of Acalpūr has declined and its interests are mainly of the past.

Public Buildings and Antiquities.

The history of the city could well be said to be the history of Berar itself. The town is full of old buildings of greater or less importance, which bear testimony to its fortunes under different rulers. Its earliest Muhammedan invaders are commemorated fitly enough in the bare but stately *Idgāh* of Sultān Imād-ul-Mulk (A.D. 1347), the nephew of Muhammad Tughlak[1].

[1]So says local tradition which has dignified him with the title of "Sultan".

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Public Buildings and Antiquities.

Idgāh.

The *idgāh* is a wall built across, in an open ground, about 46 metres (150 ft.) in length and 15 metres (50 ft.) in height. In the centre at the top of it there is a raised seat, crowned with a *gumbaz*. The extreme ends of the *idgāh* were surmounted by two tall and handsome *minārs* but now only one stands, the one to the left of the visitor having collapsed along with a small part of that side. At one of the ends there are stairs leading to the top affording a view of the Gāvilgaḍ fort, which is partly hidden by the dense forest growth. Muslims offer mass prayers on the day of *Id*. The Jāmi *Masjid* is a huge structure supported by about 108 pillars, each of a height of about 15 metres (50 ft.), constructed in the traditional style. The front row of pillars forms eleven arches. In front of the mosque is a spacious courtyard. There is also a small water tank. The Barkul gate is located in the *killā* locality of the town. It was a massive erection of stone divided into inner and outer wards and leading into the still older mud fort which dates from the Hindu times. The mud fort is no more in existence and even the Barkul gate lies amidst ruins. Only the brick structure remains, the stones and plaster having fallen asunder due to antiquity. But the remains suffice to give an idea of its grandeur and massivity. The gate had many carved stones in it taken perhaps from some of the pillaged temples and from its situation in the middle of the city it must have been a favourite 'cold harbour' in the hot weather. Recently the wall extensions of the gate were sold in auction and many houses have been constructed from the stones dug out of its foundations. The name Barkul is a corrupt form of the Persian word *Birkul* which means very big or lofty. From about the same period must date the Hauz Kaṭorā, a ruined octagonal tower of brick, mortar and sandstone, about 3 km. (2 miles) to the west of Acalpūr. It is believed to have been built by Ahmad Śah Wali Bahamani. The architecture of it is in the style known as Pathan, and the tower stands in the midst of a supposedly circular tank the diameter of which was about 91 metres (100 yards) and depth about 4.572 metres (15 ft.). Now the tank is full of mud and has lost both its shape as well as depth. It is said, though not conclusively proved, that water was brought from Dhāmaṇgāṅv by means of an underground conduit system to feed the tank and in course of time the passage might have got silted with mud and the flow of water stopped. The tower stands 24.68 metres (81 feet) in height and has three storeys: it is said that a fourth and a fifth were removed by one of the Navābs to provide materials for his own palace. There were *minārs* but they were in ruins even during the time of Akbar. The tower is also believed to have a cellar which is now supposed to have sunk in the mud. On all the eight sides, there are open arch-shaped doors and inside there are designs of beautiful creepers carved in all exuberance. The edifice is long past repairs.

Jāmi Masjid.

Barkul Gate.

Hauz Kaṭorā.

The Bahamani dynasty and its *tarafdārs* of Berar have left but little in the way of a memorial. To the Bahamanis we owe

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Places.

ACHALPUR CITY.

Public Buildings and Antiquities.

Dārus Śafā Mosque.

Dulhā Śāh Dargāh.

the water-course already mentioned, the Darus Śafā *Masjid* (A.D. 1340) and one or two unimportant minor buildings. The mosque is said to have been built by one Abdul Kādar and is located in the Farmānpurā part of the town. The entrance is through a gate constructed in the traditional style opening into a courtyard which contains a small water tank. The mosque is rectangular in shape having four rows of pillars forming five arches in the front. It measures 22 × 10 metres (75′ × 35′) and has three domes. It is in a perfectly good condition. From the same period dates the most famous of all the Acalpūr antiquities, the tomb of Dulhā Śāh Abdul Rahman Ghāzī Ghaznavī. The legend tells us of a wandering Muhammedan *fakīr* who was maltreated by a certain Rājā of Acalpūr and fled to Ghaznī to appeal for help. The great Mahmud's nephew was celebrating his bridal when the holy man arrived; but he left the feast to lead a *Jehād* from beyond the Himalayas for the punishment of the king and died fighting amid untold slaughter of the king's soldiers cutting off, we are even told, his own head to make the victory secure. On the 10th *Rabi-ul-aval* an *urus* in honour of Dulhā Śāh, attended by over 25,000 persons is held. The buildings are picturesquely situated on the north-easterly bank of the Bican about 1.60 km. (1 mile) from the city and from a distance look almost imposing with the two great archways, the small lantern window overhanging the river and a cluster of white domes behind. On closer scrutiny they are very disappointing; the apparent stone-lace-work is merely a mass of bricks and tiles placed edgeways and whitewashed and the whole effect is indescribably petty. Passing in through the large gate one finds a spacious courtyard containing the graves of many forgotten worthies. There is one in particular which has some very creditable stone tracery. Close at hand on the right lie the houses of the attendants and on the left a small mosque built originally by *Subhedār* Miyān Manzur, two hundred and fifty years ago, but restored by Ghulām Husain the last of the Navābs. Through this one enters the holy of holies, the innermost court wherein are the resting places of the Ghāzī himself and of his mother Malikā-i-Jahān. These are said to have been erected by Safdar Khān Sistānī, the lieutenant of Alā-ud-din Hasan, the first Bahaman Śāh. They are covered with whitewash and are in no way interesting; the silver doors which they possessed a hundred years ago have been stolen, and though they were once recovered by the police have since vanished. The largest enclosure of all is surrounded by a sandstone wall built by the brothers Raghujī and Mudhojī Bhosle of Nāgpūr in alternate thanks offering for their successes over each other. The eastern gate built by Mudhojī is the only erection in the whole crowd of buildings with any architectural beauty. It has a flight of stone steps on either side leading to a broad *barāhdari* on top. Half way up each flight is a small domed halting place. The *barāhdari* has six windows and two doors and is surmounted by four small *minārs*. Each gate of the wall has a Persian inscription commemorating its builder. Just outside the *dargāh* 183 metres (two hundred yards) from the west bank of

Public Buildings and Antiquities.

Moni Joni Gumbaz.

the Bican lies a small but elegant cylindrical sandstone dome supported on four sandstone pillars. It is commonly known as the Moni Joni Gumbaz, and said to commemorate the infant daughters of Ahmad Śāh Wali's *Vazīr* who died here.

After the fall of the Bahamani dynasty, the architectural history of Acalpūr is blank for several hundred years. The Imād Śāhi rulers, though they held the proud position of having been the only independent Kings of Berar, were in truth but insecurely seated on a tottering throne. Gāvilgaḍ, with its strong walls and precipitous approaches, was a capital far more to their liking than the ill-defended Acalpūr. They have left no memorial. The Nizām Śāhs were busy elsewhere, and the stir and turmoil of the Moghal invasions of the Deccan left them but little time for building. A few relics remain of the reigns of Akbar and Ālamgīr; of the former is the well or low-level reservoir known as Mandal Śāh, said to have been built by Mān Singh, the Rājā of Jaipūr. It is commonly known to the people as the Mandal Śāh Bath and is situated not far from the *idgāh* of Sultān Imād-ul-Mulk mentioned in the foregoing pages. Around the reservoir, which is a sort of a well, square in shape, are extensive meadows and a fine grove of tall tamarind trees. It has a platform where its princely owner could sit and be cool in the hot weather and niches opposite for the musicians to make him merry. The well is of masonry construction and even to-day it is in a perfectly good condition. On its bank, on a block of stone is carved in relief an image of Hanumān. It seems that the block with the image was deposited there at a later date. Ālamgīr is represented by the Cauk *Masjid* and a smaller mosque both built by Śāvastā Khān or Mirzā Beg Khān as he is also called, by the municipal office formerly a *Divān-khānā*, which is now almost in ruins, and by the restoration of the Jāmī *Masjid*. But the domes of the last-named edifice have collapsed. The Cauk *Masjid* is rectangular in shape and has three arches in the front. It was constructed in about 1653 A.D. and has three domes flanked by two *minārs*. In the courtyard to the right there is a small *talāv*.

Mandal Śāh Bath.

Cauk Masjid.

But the most princely of all the dynasties that have ruled Acalpūr was that of the Navābs of Sultan Khān's house, and though they were themselves the subordinates of the Nizām of Hyderābād they have done more to beautify the city than all the previous dynasties. In their time too, private munificence, whether that of other rulers such as Mudhojī Bhosle or of private persons, seems to have been turned to building and to such efforts we owe the Hindu temple of Bālājī and Rāmcandra and the tomb of Śāh Ismāil Fakīr. The temple of Bālājī is very old and is a plain edifice. The idol of Bālājī is made of *Aṣṭa Dhātu* and is artistically shaped. In the month of *Śrāvaṇ* its *utsava* is celebrated. The temple of Rāmcandra though as old as the temple of Bālājī is a much stronger edifice. In the *gābhārā* are placed the idols of Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa and Sītā. It is crowned by a well-designed *śikhar* with a brass spire. It is

Bālājī Temple.

Rām Mandir.

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enclosed by a compound wall and immediately at the entrance facing Rāma, in a small structure, is the idol of Hanumān. Inside to the left and right, there are similar shrines of Narsimha and a Devī, respectively. At the back again there is a small temple of Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī. The tomb of Śāh Ismāīl Fakīr is near the Dulhā Darvāzā, one of the entrance gates of the fortified city. The building consists of two chambers the outer or the main which contains the tomb of Śāh Ismāīl Fakīr with a stately dome and the inner containing some more tombs. It is much smaller than the outer one. The dome on the outer tomb-chamber is decorated with four spires in the four corners.

Dargāh of Śāh Ismāīl.

The Fort.

Sultān Khān, the first of this dynasty, built the fort in Sultānpurā in about 1754. It is a strong edifice of sandstone on the south bank of the Sarpan. The approach is covered by a flanking wall and the outer gate stands at the head of a steep approach. It was used in the early days of British administration as a gaol. Much of the part of the fort is now in a completely dilapidated condition and has lost all its former strength. Sultān Khān's son was Ismāil Khān, the greatest of the Navābs, whose lofty ideas are clearly expressed in the strong sandstone wall which he built round the city. To-day it has developed many cracks but enough remains to show that the prince equally valued beauty and strength. The wall is studded with carved stones (said to have been taken from the ruined Jain temples of *Rājā Il* though their neat appearance gives the lie to this), its gates are richly ornamented, and one at least of its *khirkis* or foot gates, that just to the north of Dulhā Darvāzā, is extremely graceful. To the same ruler and his sons Bahlol and Salābat Khān the town owes the commencement of the *Navāb Mahāl*.

The Wall.

Navāb Mahāl.

The old Amrāvatī District Gazetteer has the following to say regarding the *Navāb Mahāl*. "It consists of a multiplicity of buildings of which many have fallen into decay. The four great courtyards with their deep verandahs and beautiful carvings both in wood and stone remain. Two of them are still used as dwelling houses by the representatives of the family, and two are lent to Government for schools." The *Mahāl* is now completely deserted and has crumbled down. Only a small roofless part of it is standing. The solid wooden pillars and the work in wood remain to testify the strength, beauty and the grandeur of the *Mahāl*. Ghulām Husain Khān, the last of the line, built a large *Imāmbārā*; but the most beautiful of all the buildings in Acalpūr is the cemetery of the Navābs in Śamastpurā which contains a stately dome of Ismāil Khān and various small buildings and some very fine *jāli*, i.e., stone-lattice-work. The whole is surrounded by a strong wall with two lofty gateways. Close by is a small mosque and cemetery, dating from older times which also contains one or two handsome tombs. All the Navābs were fond of gardening and Acalpūr is surrounded by the relics of many handsome gardens. Perhaps the finest is the Nāmdār Bāg, not far from Dulhā Rahmān's *Dargāh*; it is surrounded by a wall and has a large well for irrigation while one or two fine trees are still standing. Probably it could still be restored at a small cost, and the efforts would be worthwhile. Finally,

The Cemetery.

mention should be made of the graves of bygone English soldiers at Acalpūr. Just outside the north wall a marble slab commemorates Thomas Drew, "who for many years commanded a Brigade in the service of Salābat Khān Bahādūr, Navāb of Acalpūr." He died in 1815. Close to the municipal office are buried Lieut-Colonel Kenny and another who died in Wellesley's assault on Gāvilgaḍ, and beside the *idgāh* lie Major Lane and Captain Grant, who succeeded Major Drew in the command just mentioned; the marble slabs of these last four have long since been filched from the masonry.

Besides the objects described above the temples of Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ and that of Lord Dattātraya deserve a mention. Lakṣmī Nārāyaṇ temple is very old with a spacious *sabhāmaṇḍap*. In the inner shrine on a pedestal are placed the idols of Lakṣmī and Nārāyaṇ. In front of the temple there is a fine open courtyard about 10 × 9 metres (35′ × 30′). The temple of Dattātraya is near the *gaḍhī* in the Sultānpurā locality of the town and is said to have been established by Bhāvsā Rangārī, better known as Gulābrāv Mahārāj, one of the noted saints of Acalpūr. In the *gābhārā* on a pedestal is the idol of Dattātraya. Below the *gābhārā* there is a cellar, descended down by a narrow flight of steps, containing a Śiva *Liṅga*. To the right of this in a similar but much smaller cellar is a shrine of Lakṣmī the Goddess of wealth with an idol of Gajānan nearby. Above it in a separate shrine is a Viṣṇu Pancāyatan. In the same way to the left of Śiva *Liṅga* is a temple of Rādhā Kṛṣṇa and above it is a Rāma Pancāyatan. All these shrines are inter-connected with narrow winding staircases. The arrangement is such that one has not to come out and go down again to visit the different shrines in different cellars.

Municipality.

The municipality at Acalpūr was established in 1869. It has an area of 61.72 km² (23.83 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction.

The administration of the municipality vests in the municipal committee with the President as the head.

Income and Expenditure.

In 1961-62 the total income of the municipality including a sum of Rs. 26,708.08 as the closing balance of the previous year amounted to Rs. 3,41,819.93. The income sources were: municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 1,52,798.18, realisation under special acts, Rs. 458.93; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 17,486.00; grants and contributions, Rs. 1,34,215.38; miscellaneous, Rs. 1,243.49 and extraordinary and debt heads, Rs. 8,909.87. In the same year the expenditure incurred on various items including that on extraordinary and debt heads was Rs. 3,31,886.65. The items of expenditure were general administration, Rs. 68,935.45; public safety, Rs. 13,400.43; public health and convenience, Rs. 1,20,722.86; public instruction, Rs. 1,15,984.69; contributions, Rs. 124.72; miscellaneous, Rs. 3,152.56 and extraordinary and debt heads, Rs. 9,565.94.

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ACHALPUR CITY.

Municipality.

Municipal Works.

To facilitate easy flow of traffic two causeways have been constructed across the rivers Sarpan and Bican flowing through the town and dividing its contiguity. As the building, housing the municipal offices, is in bad repairs, it is proposed to construct a new one. The municipality has also built two slaughter houses, two meat markets, two cattle-pounds and a *sarāi*. For holding a weekly market a tin shade has also been provided.

Cremation and Burial Places.

Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the respective communities.

Health and Sanitation.

The town has only *kutcha* drains. However, arrangements are made to remove night-soil and waste water out of the inhabited localities. A Committee known as the Dispensary Fund Committee conducts a dispensary and a civil hospital. It receives grants from the municipality as well as the Government. The town municipality incurs an annual average expenditure of Rs. 6,400 on medical aid. There is also a veterinary dispensary.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory in the town. It is managed by the municipality. There are five primary schools in the town. In the academic year 1961-62 these schools had a strength of 2,109 pupils with 45 teachers on the staff. In the same year the municipality spent Rs. 57,604·90 on education and learning. It received a grant of Rs. 38,236.57 for the enforcement of primary education from the Education department of the State Government. There are five privately owned high schools. One of these, *viz.*, Rāṣṭrīya High School received a grant of Rs. 15,000 from the municipality in 1961-62. The Jagadaṁbā Mahāvidyālaya with the faculties of Arts and Commerce was established in 1961. It received a grant of Rs. 5,000 from the municipality in 1962-63. There are two private libraries, *viz.*, the Sārvajanik Vācanālaya and the Navayug Hindi Library, each receiving an annual grant of Rs. 200 from the municipality.

Roads.

The town has very few good roads within the municipal limits. Thus far the municipality has constructed nearly 18 kilometres of roads. Of these 9·452 km. are metalled and the remaining unmetalled.

ACHALPUR CIVIL STATION.

Acalpūr Civil Station, also called Paratvāḍā and Acalpūr Cantonment, is situated at a height of 386·740 metres (1268 feet) above sea-level, and lies 51.49 km. (32 miles) north-west of Amrāvatī and 3.21 km. (2 miles) north of Acalpūr City. It is connected with Amrāvatī and Cikhaldarā and the Betul border by metalled high roads. There is also a metalled road to Añjangāṅv Surjī (16 miles=25.749 km.) and another to Cāndūr Bazār (14 miles=22.531 km.). This road is crossed by two rivers, *viz.*, Pival and Purṇā. There is a small bridge over the former while over the latter a much bigger one is under construction. Its total population, according to the Census of 1961, is 17,490 of which 9,176 are males and 8,314 females.

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ACHALPUR CIVIL STATION.

Trade.

Timber brought from Melghāṭ to the bazar on Thursdays, is by far the most important article of trade. The depot established here by the Forest department is one of the biggest depots in India and forms a considerable source of income to the Government. Cattle is the next most important item of sale in the bazar. The bazar cess collected in 1961-62, amounted to Rs. 22,250.

History.

Paratvāḍā is quite a modern town, its existence being due to its selection as a military station when Salābat Khān's Reformed Troops were converted into the Acalpūr Brigade and made a part of the Hyderābād Contingent. It was in 1823 according to the Nurul Berār that the cantonment was formed, Captain Sayer being at that time Commandant. The station at Jaipur Kothi was in the same year abandoned. At one time, a whole brigade with cavalry, artillery and infantry was stationed here. Meadows Taylor in 1840 notes that it was particularly the Brigadier's privilege to spend his summers at Cikhaldarā but on various occasions since the assignment the numbers were reduced, and in 1903 only one battalion of infantry was left to evacuate the place. The old military buildings which were valued at Rs. 2,11,782 then, consist of infantry and artillery lines with a military hospital which are now occupied by the agricultural farm and its research section as Paratvāḍā has long since ceased to be a military station.

Description.

Paratvāḍā is divided by the river Bican into two parts, the two being joined by bridges, one near the post office on the Cikhaldarā road, and the other close to the "Khunī Bungalow" a private house so called for some unknown reason. The bridges are named as Temblo bridge and Woodhouse bridge. The Circuit House or Lāl Bungalow lies in an open space a few hundred yards to the north of the town. The *bastī* is divided into seven *purās* or quarters named Choṭā Bazar, Mothā Bazar, Moglāī purā. Gatarmalpurā, Vakīl line, Pensionpurā. etc. Its chief buildings are the Recreation lodge, a club with a fine tennis-court and a billiard table, a town hall, three high schools including one for girls, a newly built *sarāī* and a civil hospital. The municipal office has been accommodated in the military hospital. There are also two temples dedicated one each to Dattā and Viṭṭhal. On the northern side of the town is an open space provided with *cabutarās* for the daily market and beyond this lies the unused parade ground. The Civil Station is a well laid out area with broad roads and excellent bungalows and public offices. Though now wearing a somewhat deserted appearance since its reduction at one stroke from the headquarters of a district and military centre to the suburb of a second class town, it is still a picturesque place, being well shaded with splendid trees. The climate is much cooler than Amrāvatī in the cold weather, and warmer in the summer, both on account of its proximity to the hills and of the trees which prevent the wind. In the rains the same causes, together with the proximity of the river, make it very damp

CHAPTER 19. Places. ACHALPUR CIVIL STATION. Description.

and unpleasant. In this portion of the town lie, besides the private residential bungalows, the site of the weekly bazar and the former District Offices, where now the Court of the Sub-divisional officer is held. There is also a police station and a rest-house. The old district jail serves as the premises for the office of the Executive Engineer. The station has both an Anglican church and a Roman Catholic church; there is a joint cemetery. Paratvāḍā is the headquarters of the Roman Catholic Mission to the Dheḍs and of the Korku and Central India Hill Mission. The latter body manages an orphanage and an industrial school at Paratvāḍā and Khudāvandpur, and a leper asylum at Koṭhāre about 4.82 km. (3 miles) away. The Anglican church here conducts a Civil Hospital.

Municipality.

There are separate municipalities for the area covered by Acalpūr camp and Acalpūr City. The Acalpūr camp municipality was established in 1893 and has under its control an area of 6.16 km.[2] (2.38 sq. miles). The President, elected by the councillors from amongst themselves, is responsible for the municipal administration.

Income and Expenditure.

In 1961-62, the municipal income amounted to Rs. 3,35,075.04. This amount excludes receipts under extraordinary and debt heads. The income comprised municipal rates and taxes contributing Rs. 1,36,438.15; realisation under special acts, Rs. 2,043.66; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation. Rs. 83,327.76; grants and contributions for special and general purposes, Rs. 1,09,804.01 and miscellaneous, Rs. 3,461.46. In the same year expenditure was Rs. 3,22,907.20. The expenditure figure also excludes expenditure on extraordinary and debt heads. The item-wise expenditure was general administration and collection charges, Rs. 24,893.89; public safety, Rs. 9,038.84; public health and convenience, Rs. 1,46,578.73; public instruction, Rs. 1,33,662.37; grants and contributions for general purposes, Rs 2,379.00 and miscellaneous, Rs. 6,354.37.

Cremation and Burial Places.

Burial and cremation grounds are managed and used by the respective communities. The Hindus have two burial grounds and the Muslims only one.

Health and Sanitation.

The town has *pucca* as well as *kutcha* drains. Waste water is allowed to gather in cess-pools and is then removed. Work of converting the *kutcha* drains into *pucca* ones which was taken up in 1961-62, is estimated to cost Rs. 74,518.00. Water-supply is obtained from wells, private as well as public. No shortage of water is experienced. There is only one civil dispensary and is managed by Government. It receives an annual contribution of Rs. 1,500 from the municipality. There is a maternity home run by the municipality. The CIB Misson of America maintains a hospital in the town.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory and is under municipal management. The number of primary schools is five. In the year ending March 1962, there were 1,406 pupils on the rolls of the schools with 41 teachers. The net expenditure incurred on

primary education during the same year was Rs. 61,920.74. There are two montessori schools, one private and the other public. The municipality also manages a high school having two sections, one with Marāṭhī as its medium of instruction and the other with Hindī. The strength of both these sections was 772 (1961-62) with 32 teachers. The expenditure on secondary education came to Rs. 71,261.63 in the same year. The total sum spent on education and learning, thus stood at Rs. 1,33,182.37. In addition to the above stated institutions there are two private high schools one each for boys and girls. The Girls' High School received a grant of Rs. 500 in 1962-63. Likewise Boys' School received Rs. 1,001 as grant-in-aid in 1962-63. The Government runs a B.Ed. Training College and a S.T.C. College.

Roads.

The total length of roads in the town is 17.501 km. (10 miles and 7 furlongs) of which 10.05 km. (6 miles, 2 furlongs) are metalled.

There are two markets one daily and the other weekly. Besides, there are two other markets, one dealing in cotton and the other in grains. All these are built by the municipality. The markets are proposed to be renovated and extended at an estimated cost of Rs. 18,000.

The town has three private libraries. They are the Bālmitra Library, the Sārvajanik Vācanālaya and the Christī Sāhitya Kendra. The first two of these receive grant-in-aid from the municipality.

ACHALPUR TAHSIL.
Physical Features.

Acālpūr Tahsil, formerly the headquarters tahsil of the Achalpūr district but since August 1905 a tahsil of the Amrāvatī district lying between 21°9′ and 21°24′ N. and 77°23′ and 77°53′ E. with an area of 1269.10 km.² (490 sq. miles), contains 329 villages and towns. It lies in the Payanghāṭ at the foot of the Sātpuḍā hills and is bounded on the north by the Melghaṭ tahsil of Amrāvatī district and the Betūl district of the Madhya Pradeś; on the west by the Daryāpūr tahsil, the Amrāvatī and Morśī tahsils forming the boundary on the south and east. The tahsil is compact in shape, and is the smallest of all the tahsils in point of size. The face of the country is perfectly level, although here and there deeply indented by the rivers and freshets that find their way down from the Sātpuḍā hills. Here are the best camping grounds in the district. The soils are very fertile, quite equal to those in Akoṭ and Daryāpūr. In spite of the great demand for wood fuel in recent years, many parts of the tahsil are still well wooded. There is scarcely a village which cannot boast of its grove of trees, and the general prosperity and high standard of cultivation prevailing afford a satisfaction to the eye which verges on monotony. Water in many places lies close to the surface and maintains a certain amount of moisture in the soil, by which the country has been enabled to weather the severe famines of the last decade with comparative success. With the advent of electricity, pumps have been installed on wells and a considerable area brought under well irrigation. Pākalnālā project under way, when completed would irrigate 151.875 hectares (375 acres) of land of this tahsil. The climate in the greater part of the tahsil

CHAPTER 19. Places. ACHALPUR TAHSIL. Physical features.

is healthy throughout the year, though the heat is very trying in April and May; the villages in the north of the tahsil lying under the hills are feverish during the last three months of the year. The principal rivers which drain the tahsil are the Candrabhāgā and the Purṇā. The banks of both are too high to make irrigation practicable unless very large works are undertaken for which again the supply of water would not suffice. Such as they are, however, they are a great boon to the country as the water is good and lasts throughout the hot season. The Sarpan, a tributary of the Candrabhāgā, flows past the city of Acalpūr and formerly supplied the city with water by an aqueduct. There is an old and ruined drain of similar construction known as the Satbuḍkī, or seven wells, near the village of Datura, which was formerly used for the irrigation of garden lands in the neighbourhood. Legend connects its origin with the supply of water to the Hauz Kaṭorā.

Population.

The population of the tahsil as per the 1961 Census is 209,189 as against 178,312 in 1951 which shows a rapid increase over the last ten years. In the original settlement report it was pointed out that the population was more than the land could fairly bear, and emigration to less cultivated tracts was predicted. At that time the Settlement Officer's report did not receive any attention and there was actually no need of taking any measures as Acalpūr was capable of supporting that much population. But the increase in population over the past decade is so rapid that the productive capacities of Acalpūr tahsil have fallen short and hence even food stuffs have largely to be brought from outside. The tahsil contains the towns of Acalpūr, Paratvāḍā and Cāndūr Bazār, and 326 villages of which 75 are uninhabited according to village lists.

Agriculture.

The culture of the ground is carried on somewhat more carefully here than in Amrāvatī, in consequence perhaps of the greater value of land. The principal crops grown are jovar, cotton and *tur*. On a large extent of the land bordering on the hilly country to the north, cotton and jovar are the only crops grown, the soil being too shallow to retain sufficient moisture for *rabi* cultivation. The demand on account of land revenue including cess in 1961-62 was Rs. 7,25,534, while the amount actually collected according to treasury figures during the same year was Rs. 4,33,030.

Miscellaneous

For purposes of land records the tahsil has been divided into four Revenue Inspectors' circles with headquarters at Acalpūr, Paratvāḍā, Cāndūr Bazār and Śirasgāṅv Kasbā. It constitutes with Melghāṭ a single Police Circle under one Inspector and contains six station houses, each under a Sub-Inspector at Acalpūr Cāndūr Bazār, Pāthroṭ, Śirasgāṅv Kasbā, Paratvāḍā and Āsegāṅv.

AMLA

Amlā, with a population of 3,016 and 721 houses as per the 1961 Census, is largely an agricultural village in Cāndūr tahsil. There is a temple dedicated to Viśveśvar (Mahādev) in whose

AMLA.

honour a fair is held on the eve of *Śivrātra* in *Māgh*. It is attended by over 3,000 persons. Its management rests with the village *Pañcas*. On *Māgh Śuddha Paurṇima*, another fair in honour of Eknāth *Mahārāj*, one of the most celebrated saints of Mahārāṣṭra, is held. It lasts for two days and the attendance ranges from four to five thousand. There is a high school named as Śrī Kṛṣṇa High School, a post office and a co-operative society. The weekly bazar is held on Wednesdays. Drinking water is obtained from wells.

AMNER.

Amner is a village in Morśī tahsil with 297 houses and 1,731 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census. It is situated on the Wardhā river opposite the village of Jalālkheḍā in Nāgpūr district. Formerly a place of much importance, to-day it has lost its former glory and can only be reached by country roads from Nāgpūr or Varuḍ. However, the ruins of the town walls as well as of many temples, mosques and tombs bear witness to its former glory. It is said to have had manufactures of laces and silk and a fair to which elephants, horses, jewellery, and other outward signs of wealth were brought. There was a great fight here between the Bhosle and the Nizām when the latter was marching to the reduction of Navāb Ismāil Khān, and the tombs of the slain are still shown.

Mahādev Mandir.

There is an old temple of Mahādev in the old mud fort, now in a ruined state, on the left bank of the river. Wardhā, about 0.604 km. (three furlongs) from Āmner village. It stands overlooking the confluence of the Wardhā and the Jām rivers. Nothing except huge mounds of earth remain to testify the existence of a land fort in the olden days. The temple is just within the borders of the Amrāvati district with the district of Nāgūpr stretching beyond. From the *maṇḍap* of the temple the inhabitations of the Jalālkheḍa village are clearly visible. The temple is held in high veneration and, is daily visited by a large number of people. On *Mahāśivrātra* day a fair attended by over 15,000 people coming from both Amrāvatī and Nāgpūr districts is held. The temple is built of stone, brick and mortar. While the actual face of the temple is towards the east its entrance is on the southern side. As usual the *liṅga* occupies the central position in the *gābhārā* measuring about 1.394 sq. metres (15 sq. ft.) crowned with a *śikhar* of no great beauty The outer hall is 9×6 metres (30′×20′) and is well-lighted and ventilated. In the *maṇḍap* there is an image of *nandi*, the *vāhan* of Mahādev. From the temple terrace a view of the confluence of the rivers can be had. The structure from its appearance looks very antique, the plaster and some bricks having given way in some places and unless prompt measures are taken to repair it, it might crumble before long. About 30 paces off there is a pool of great depth at the bottom of which there is supposed to be a temple which can be seen when the river is clear. Tradition says that the place is presided over by the Gods, and that at one time any Brāhmaṇ by asking for cooking vessels overnight would find them near this pool in the morning; he was, however, bound to return them, when used, into the water. One

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Amner.

Mahādev Mandir.

day a Brāhmaṇ prayed for a large number and instead of returning them, sold the vessels, since when they have never been supplied. Perhaps the most striking of the ruins, though it is little over two hundred and fifty years old, is the makbara of Lāl Khān Paṭhāṇ, a large domed building in white stucco, with small spires in the four corners. Over the gateway is an inscription in Persian as follows:—

> "For the service of the throne of the Emperor Ālamgīr, his servant Rājā Kisan Sing, with great exertions and in purity of heart and soul laid the foundation of a beautiful tomb, a mosque, a cistern and a garden as well constructed as Paradise itself. It was on the felicitous day, the fourth of Ramzān that Lāl Khān Bazlaman passed from this world. Though his body be placed in the earth of Āmner, yet his pure soul is entrusted to Hari. O God! Ever preserve this matchless resting place that his holy tomb and the dome of light may always shine. When I sought of the unseen one the year of his death, I was told 'Lāl Khān achieved martyrdom at Badnur'."

The building of the mausoleum was accomplished between the 34th and 36th years of the Emperor's reign at Delhi, 'Hijri 1100.' The chronogram 'Lāl Khān yaft Śahādat bamakān Badnūr', gives not only the place but the date of his death. Perhaps the most notable feature of the tomb is that it should have been built by a Hindu Rājā.

Amner Fort.

The fort of Āmner, often called Jilpi Āmner is in Melghāṭ tahsil and occupies an elevated position immediately overlooking the waters of the Gargā and the Tāpī at their confluence. It is a compact looking quadrangular building of brick and mud pointed with mortar. The walls are flanked by four bastions of the same material, and enclose about half a hectare (an acre) of ground. To-day the fort is amidst ruins and the walls are crumbling down. Around, there is a dense and wild forest growth which completely hides the view of the fort. The west angle is occupied by a mosque, which, with its minarets towering above the rest of the fort, presents a rather picturesque object. There is only one approach, that from the north-west, on a level with the left bank of the Tāpī, which, though entirely of earth, is very steep. The gateway and a portion of the ramparts were destroyed in 1858. At the same time the guns, four or five in number, were removed. It lay in the line of Tātyā Ṭope's retreat at the close of the War of Independence of 1857 and subsequently when Taṇṭyā Bhil was harassing the surrounding country with his raids, a police watch was established here under the command of the late Rājā Khuman Singh, without, however, very much effect.

Amravati Tahsil.

Physical Features.

Amrāvatī tahsil is the headquarters tahsil of the Amrāvatī district lying between 20° 41′ and 21° 12′ N. and 77° 32′ and 78° 2′ E. with an area of 2,157.47 km.^{2} (833 sq. miles). It lies in the fertile valley of Berār (Varhāḍ) but the almost uniform characteristics of this valley are broken by a low range of stony

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AMRAVATI TAHSIL. Physical Features.

and barren hills which cropping up in the immediate vicinity of Amrāvatī camp, now incorporated in the town, extends over the eastern border of the tahsil. The tahsil is bounded on the north by the Acalpūr tahsil of Amrāvatī district and the Murtizāpūr tahsil of Akolā district, and in the east and south it borders upon the Cāndūr tahsil almost touching with its north-eastern extremity, the river Wardhā. The tahsil is compact in shape though it narrows towards the north. The tract contains no large forests, but *bābul* and mango trees are plentiful everywhere, though the latter tree does not attain to very great size. The tahsil has a great variety of soils ranging from the prevalent black agrillaceous mould to the worst of rocky soils. Though the latter are inferior in appearance they are, however, tolerably fertile owing to the iron felspar they contain, and in favourable seasons they produce excellent crops, but require periodical manuring. The black soil, however, except in the western part of the tahsil where it contains an excess of saline matter, is very fertile, requiring little or no manure nor even heavy ploughing, for the production of the prolific cotton for which this part of Berar is so justly renowned. The soil is deep and in the hot weather great fissures form in it, sometimes several feet deep. With the coming of the monsoon the surface matter is washed well below and the soil turned as effectually as it would be by the best ploughs[1]. The climate is on the whole healthy, though trying in the months of April, May and June on account of the extreme heat. The only rivers of any importance are the Pūrṇā and the Peḍhī; the former separates Amrāvatī from Daryāpūr on the western border and contains a supply of water throughout the year. The Peḍhī running through the centre of the tahsil also has a perennial supply. Many of the villages are dependent on wells for drinking water. The same salt bed, however, which underlies parts of the Akolā district and Daryāpūr tahsil, infects Amrāvatī, and hence well water is frequently very brackish especially in the western towns and villages. Two large tanks have been constructed near Amrāvatī for supplying water to the city, but in years of short rainfall the supply is precarious. There are also tanks at Pohorā, Añjangāñv Bārī, and one or two other places. In 1961 the population had attained the figure of 3,82,707 as against 3,15,410 in 1951. The tahsil contains two towns, Amrāvatī (population 1,37,875) and Badnerā (population 23,840) and 434 villages, of which 78 are uninhabited according to village lists. Besides the above towns the tahsil contains 18 villages with a population of more than 2,000 and 36 villages with less than 2,000 but over 1,000 (1961 Census).

The principal crops grown are cotton, jovar, wheat and *tur*. The total land revenue derived in the year 1961-62 amounted to Rs. 10,58,533·01.

Miscellaneous.

The tahsil contains 9 police stations of which three are located in Amrāvatī city and one each at Badṇera, Kholāpūr, Loṇī, Nandgāñv Khaṇḍeśvar, Māhulī Jāgir, and Vālgāñv, respectively

[1]. This is the popular theory.

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In the city there are five civil and criminal courts under the District and Sessions Judge, Amrāvatī.

Situation.

Amrāvatī (pop. 137,865) is the headquarters of the Amrāvatī district as also the tahsil of the same name. It stands about 340.76 metres (1,118 ft.) above sea-level 20° 56′ N and 77° 47′ E and is situated at a distance of about 181.85 km. (113 miles) to the south-west of Nāgpūr, 672.71 km. (418 miles) to the north-east of Bombay and 1,310 km. (814 miles) to the south-west of Calcuttā *via* Nāgpūr by railway. Though it is not on the main line of the Central railway it is connected with it by a branch line from Baḍnerā on the main line, 9.65 km. (six miles) away as also by a fine tar road.

Description.

The town includes portions of the villages of Tārkheḍ, Rajāpeṭh, Gambhīrpūr, Mahājanpūr, and Saturṇā. The civil station of the camp area which till recently formed a separate town with a separate municipality has been merged in the Amrāvatī town and has been brought within the administrative jurisdiction of a single municipality. Before it was merged it formed the eastern boundary of Amrāvatī town. Cilam Śāh Wali *dargāh* now forms the farthest eastern limits of the town. This part is on a higher elevation than the rest and attains a height of 401.05 metres (1,283 ft.) above sea-level. Amrāvatī is a modern town and is said to have been founded by Raghujī Bhosle. Its fortunes commenced at the close of the 18th Century when the tyranny of the Akolā tahsildar drove a number of inhabitants of that place to settle here; but its early years were by no means uniformly prosperous. Both the Nāgpūr and the Hyderābād rulers were represented here, the former taking 60 per cent and the latter 40 per cent of the revenues. The great wall of the town was built during these days. Its construction was begun in 1804 by the Nizām's government and was completed 17 years later at a cost of over 4 lakhs of rupees. Meadows Taylor's "Confessions of a Thug" vividly describes the daring raid of Citu, the Peṇḍhārī leader, on Amrāvatī and it was to save the town from such calamities that the wall was built. The wall which is 3·62 km. (two and a quarter mile) in circumference and from 6.09 to 7.92 metres (20 to 26 ft.) in height, is neither architecturally beautiful nor strategically noteworthy. But it was very strongly built. Now the wall has cracked at various points and collapsed; but still is a subject of much local pride. It has five large gates (Aṁbā, Bhusārī, now called Jawāhar, Nagpūr, Kholāpūr and Mahājanavis) and four smaller ones, for foot passengers only, called *Khirkis* (the Khunārī, Chatrapurī, Mātā and Paṭel's *Khirkis*). The Khunārī *Khirki* derives its name from a faction fight during the Muharram of 1816 A.D. (10th of Muharram 1226 Fasli) in which nearly 700 persons were said to have been killed. In addition to the gates and *khirkis* mentioned already two more passages have been made *viz.*, in Kangarpurā and Sabanpurā.

The town of Amrāvatī is divided into two parts, the old city within and the extensive suburbs outside the walls to which now

the camp area has been added. Within the walls lie the *muhallās* and quarters called (1) Dhanrāj street, (2) Macchisāt, (3) Dahisat, (4) Bhusārā street, (5) Bohorisāt, (6) Śakarsāt, (7) Sarāfā, (8) Bajaja, (9) Baripurā, (10) Patwipurā, (11) Māḷipurā, (12) Budhvārā, (13) Kumbhārvāḍā and (14) Bhājī Bazar. Outside the wall lie Namunā, Buṭi Peṭh, Aṁbā Peṭh, Mudhoḷkar Peṭh, Danda, Joglekar and Māṅgilāl Plots, Ambikānagar, Kalyāṇ Nagar, Motī Nagar, Mudaliar Nagar, Rukmiṇī Nagar. Fraserpura, Hamālpurā, Belpurā, Rājāpeṭh, Khāparḍe garden, Masangañj, Ratangañj and many more.

The streets inside the wall are mostly narrow and the inhabitations suffer from congestion. In contrast to this the new settlements outside the walls have broad and well maintained streets and are far better ventilated. Namunā, Buṭī Peth, Ambikānagar, Mudhoḷkar Peṭh, Mudaliar Nagar are some of the best localities of the town. The new bungalows, especially those which have come up along the camp road are extremely well built. Most of the part covered by the Jawāhar road, Badnerā road within the municipal limits, Saroj Cauk to Aṃbā nālā bridge and Jawāhar gate to Jaystaṁbha have underground drainage system. The houses in this area are almost all well built upon solid plinths which except in the case of poorer houses are usually of stone. Namunā quarter contains two considerable open spaces, Nicoletts park now known as Nehru *maidān* and the Jog square. Hamālpurā, Masangañj, Ratangañj, Fraserpurā and Waḍḍārpurā are some of the less well to do localities. Caprāsipurā, a hamlet, intended originally as its name suggests for habitation by peons and orderlies has retained only its name.

Water-supply.

There is tap-water-supply in the town. Water is obtained from Wāḍaḷī *talāv*, Chatrī *talāv* and the Pedhi river. But during summer there is shortage of water-supply Wāḍaḷī *talāv* has been brought under pisciculture.

A bi-weekly bazar on Wednesdays and Sundays is held in Itwāri near Masangañj and is largely attended. It has now been sufficiently extended. For the *bhājī* bazar, which is along Jawāhar road, platforms have been provided for vegetable and fruit vendors.

Trade and Manufactures.

Amrāvatī has long been known as the principal cotton mart of Berar, there being a large number of ginning and pressing factories. It is fast rising in commercial importance. The cotton is ginned, pressed and despatched in bales in large quantities to Bombay, Ahmedābād and Calcuttā For this purpose a cotton market has been established. It has also a good trade in oranges. There are also oil presses and printing presses and many other small factories besides a large number of handlooms and power-looms. The Jawāhar road starting from Sarāfā and going up to Jaystaṁbha. Badnerā road, the Saroj Cauk covering Rājkamal Cauk and the Aṁbā nālā bridge constitute the main business centres. The chief markets are Jośi market,

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Takhatmal estate, Gāndhī market and Śivājī market, the last of which is in the Jog square. Other markets are located along or nearby the Jawāhar road.

Educational Institutions.

Compulsory primary education has been introduced in the town. There are primary schools conducted both by the Zillā Pariṣad as also the town municipality. Amrāvatī has a large number of educational institutions imparting knowledge and training in various walks of life and fields. Besides the primary schools there are eight I.E.M schools (four each for boys and girls), as many as 27 high schools (public and private) of which 21 are for boys and 6 for girls, five B.Ed. colleges (3 for males and two for females), four S.T.C. colleges and two D.P.T. colleges. The colleges teaching up to graduate and post-graduate courses. are—

(i) Vidarbha Mahāvidyālaya (Arts and Science),

(ii) Rāj Mahāvidyālaya (Arts and Commerce),

(iii) Bhāratīya Mahāvidyālaya (Arts and Commerce),

(iv) Śivājī Education Society's college with the faculties of Arts, Science, Commerce, Law and Agriculture, and

(v) Kanyā Mahāvidyālaya (Arts only).

The Śivājī Education Society also conducts a Grām Sevak and a Pañcāyāti Rāj Training Institute. The Government polytechnic imparts education in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering courses. There are also technical and industrial training institutes, a vocational high school and a physical training institute and a number of other institutes. The hall of the technical institute is the largest in Amrāvatī and is used for all types of social and cultural functions.

The Zillā Granthālaya, the integrated library attached to the post-graduate B. Ed. college and the Nagar Vācanālaya are the principal public libraries of the city.

Dispensaries and Hospitals.

Quite a few civil dispensaries are maintained by the municipality. There are two veterinary dispensaries conducted by the Zillā Pariṣad. Besides these there are the hospitals maintained by the Government, *viz.*, (1) the Irwin hospital located along the camp road, (2) the Dufferin hospital, (3) the Camp hospital, (4) the Gopīkisan Ganeśdās Rāṭhī T. B. Clinic and (5) the Vidarbha Mahāvidyālaya hospital. There are over six private maternity homes. The Jagadambā Kuṣṭha Nivās Mahārogī Sevā Maṇḍaḷ, Tapovan, treats leprosy patients.

Means of Recreation.

The town has no less than ten theatres, four clubs, *viz.*, Vanitā Samāj, Lion's club, Officers' club and Rāṭhe club. There are two parks *viz.*, the Rājendra park maintained by the Śivājī Education Society and the Nehru park maintained by the town municipality. On the old race course near the Māl Ṭekḍī, which commands the town and incidentally serves as a butt to the rifle range, there is a proposal to build a stadium to be known as Śivājī stadium.

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Public Officer.

Amrāvatī has a number of State as well as Central Government offices, most of them being located in the camp area. Principal of them are those of the Collector, the Zillā Parişad, the District and Sessions Judge, the District Superintendent of Police, the Divisional Forest Officer, the Superintending Engineer, the District Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Divisional Soil Conservation Officer, the Cotton Extension Officer and Maharashtra State Electricity Board. The 45th Battalion of the Maharashtra N. C. C. unit is stationed at Amrāvatī. There is a large jail which was established as early as the year 1886.

The town has a post and telegraph office, telephone exchange and a rest house and a circuit house. Among the municipal buildings the clock tower is noteworthy. The municipality also maintains two *sarāis* one of which is within the walls and the other outside.

Objects.

Amrāvatī contains a large number ot Hindu temples among which those of Aṁbā and Ekikarā are the most important and require particular attention. There are also temples dedicated to Someśvar, Nārāyaṇ, Dattā and Murlīdhar, the last of which is of very recent construction. Amrāvatī has also the *samādhi* of Gāḍge Mahārāj.

Aṁbā Temple.

The Aṁbā[1] temple with a strongly built compound wall around, is the oldest in the whole of the district. It is invested with great sanctity and divinity. On the left side of the entrance leading into the courtyard are a number of corridors and to the right a spacious hall wherein is the office of the managing committee of the temple. Above the gate is the *nagārkhānā* or the drum chamber. On the walls of the corridors various stories as told in the Purāṇas are illustrated with the help of pictures. Three arch-shaped *gābhārās* house the images of Aṁbābāī, Gaṇapatī, Mahādev, Viṣṇu and Parvatī. Śiva is represented by a *Liṅga* symbol instead of an image. The idol of the Goddess is said to be of sand stone. A number of people daily visit the temple and offer prayers to the Goddess. Two silver lamps are always kept burning by the side of the idol. Besides the idol of Aṁbā there are in the same *gābhārā* idols of Lakṣmī and Nārāyaṇ. On the western wall of the temple *maṇḍap* the *Navagrahas* are carved in relief and below are placed two images of *Nandī* and those of Mahādev and Visnu. The temple appears to be of considerable age, but how much of the present building could be of that age cannot be easily ascertained as pious hands have covered the whole with plaster and ornament. It was from hence, it is said, that Kṛṣṇa carried off Rukmiṇī, who had come to the temple with her brother Rukmī to pay her respects before her marriage with Śiśupāl. With them, to witness the ceremony, came a number of persons called *varhāḍis* or *varhāris*. As the *varhāḍis* settled here the country got its name Varhār or Varhāḍ which came to be known as Berār in English. Rukmī, after Rukmiṇī's enlevement tried to settle the issue with Kṛṣṇa on the field of battle, but was defeated and only spared at the urgent entreaties of his

[1]. A temple originally said to have been dedicated to Indra.

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sister. He then retired and settled at Bhātkulī a village nearly 23 km. (14 miles) westward, where his name has been perpetuated by a temple erected in his honour. The name of the town is even said to have derived from the Goddess, though the derivation is almost as doubtful as that just given for the name of the province, and the 'etymology' "the Eternal city" or "the city of the Immortals" is far more likely. The deity is held in great reverence by the people of the Hindu community and on every occasion of a marriage or a thread ceremony invitation is invariably offered first to this deity. The most important days when visitors come to the temple in great numbers are those of *Navarātra,* when from *Āśvin Śuddha Pratipadā* to *Daśamī* the festival is celebrated. It is attended by more than two lakhs of people. In the month of *Kārtika, kākaḍ ārtī* is performed and at the end of the month the chariot is taken in procession. Music accompanied by the beating of drums or what is known as *caughaḍā* is played thrice a day. The *Dasarā* festival is also celebrated with great pomp. *Kīrtans* and *pravacanas* are delivered and sections from *Purāṇas* are recited on the occasion of each festival.

Ekikarā Goddess Temples.

The temple of Ekikarā Devī is at a short distance from that of Aṁbābāī who is regarded as an incarnation of Aṁbābāī. The temple is surrounded by a courtyard wall along the course of which are built some cloisters or *owries*. It has an elegant, twenty-four pillared *manḍap* with its walls decorated with pictures of various saints painted in relief. In front of the *gābhārā* there is another eight-pillared chamber with chandeliers hanging from its ceiling . The door frame of the *gābhārā* is plated with brass and the niche containing the idol is formed of two superimposed silver arches. A spire of gold adorns the *sikhar* of the temple. Outside the *gābhārā* to the right is the *samādhī* of *Svāmī* Janārdan who lived some 500 years ago and who is said to have founded the temple. Nearby is a well where he used to perform penance. It is told of Janārdan Svāmī that he used to visit the temple of Aṁbābāī every day to offer his prayers, but once the stream which has to be crossed while going from Ekikarā temple to that of Aṁbā's was so much flooded that the Svāmī could not cross it. Upon this the Goddess Aṁbā finding her devotee in troubles came to his rescue and told him that she herself would come to his place in a different form. An arrow miraculously appeared in the well indicating the presence of the Goddess where the present temple was built. In *Āśvin* a fair lasting for 9 days is held from *Āśvin Śuddha Pratipadā* to *Daśamī.*

Samādhī of Sant Gāḍge Mahārāj.

At a distance of about 2.41 km. (one and a half miles) from the city of Amrāvatī along the main road is the *samādhi* of Sant Gāḍge Mahārāj one of the noted saints of the district. The *samādhī* occupies a 1.394 m². (15 feet square) platform and its roof is supported by four pillars, one in each corner. A framed picture of the late saint is kept at the place. It is however proposed to replace it by a bust. The spot where the *samādhi* is situated was said to have been occupied by an orange garden. The *samādhi* of his wife lies a little over 7 metres (25 feet) away.

On *Mārgaśirṣa Vadya Trayodaśi* a fair is held in memory of the departed saint.

The Jain temples are small and call for no particular comment except that of Bālājī. A new Jain *Basti* has been constructed near Jawāhar road.

Bālāji Mandir.

Among the Jain places of worship at Amrāvatī, the temple of Bālājī built in about 1735 is the most prominent. A story is told that some Mārvāḍī tradesmen while on their pilgrimage to some holy place came across a *mahant* by name Puraṇdāsjī to whom they made over one fourth of their capital requesting him to build a temple for Bālājī. The present temple was subsequently built. Similar temples are found at Khāmgāṅv, Wāśīm, Deūḷagāṅv Rājā, Akolā and Pooṇā. Situated in the centre of a spacious courtyard the temple edifice is built of bricks and mortar. It has a four-pillared *sabhāmaṇḍap*. The vestibule contains, besides the four handed idol of Bālājī the idols of various other deities like Rāmā, Lakṣmaṇa and Sītā, Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa, Viṭṭhal and Rakhumāī, Suryanārāyaṇa and Gaṇapati. There is also a *śaḷīgrām*. A *śikhar* with a beautiful golden spire adorns the shrine. The temple faces east and to its north and south are small shrines of Māruti and Mahādev. Near the Mahādev shrine besides those of Puraṇdāsjī are placed the *pādukās* of a number of *mahants* who dedicated their noble lives in the holy service of the Lord. Within the temple premises, to the east, is the *nagār khānā* or the room of the temple musicians and a small flower garden. To the south are some residential quarters where orphans and needy students are given asylum and free education. There are separate quarters for the *mahants* and corridors for visitors. Two fairs in honour of Bālājī are held annually, one being the *Navarātra* ceremony and the other beginning from *Pauśa Śuddha Pratipadā* and lasting till *Dvādaśī*. The attendance ranges from 70 thousand to 80 thousand. The temple is supported from the income of a freehold land measuring nearly 56 hectares (140 acres).

Other Objects.

The town has also several mosques and a *dargāh* called Cilam Śāh Wālī. Of the mosques that of Baḍe Nāl Sāheb is supported by an *inām* land and the Jāme *Masjid* is said to be over 350 years old but none of them are of any interest. The Usmānia mosque near Māl Ṭekaḍi is well maintained.

Municipality.

Constitution.

The municipality at Amrāvatī was constituted in 1887. It has an area of 36.34 km². (14.03 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction and a population of 1,37,875 according to the Census of 1961. Administrative affairs are looked after by the President who is elected by the Councillors. He is aided by the necessary staff in this task.

Finance.

In 1959-60 the income of the municipality accrued from various sources including that under extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 20,38,901.19. Expenditure incurred during the same year came to Rs. 19,23,314.17. The income comprised municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 13,26,399.97 ; realisation under

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special Acts Rs. 13,086.29; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 1,07,578.75; grants and contributions, Rs. 4,18,394.75; miscellaneous, Rs. 52,914.60 and extraordinary and debt heads Rs. 1,20,526.83. The expenditure was composed of such items as general administration, Rs. 1,77,336.21, public safety, Rs. 1,17,254.44; public health and convenience, Rs. 7,44,473.26; public instruction, Rs. 5.20,376.39; contributions, Rs. 9,208.75; miscellaneous, Rs. 1,27,268.96 and extraordinary and debt heads, Rs. 2,27,396.16.

Health and Sanitation.

Adequate measures are taken to prevent outbreak of epidemics. To treat the affected patients an isolation hospital is maintained by the municipality. It also conducts seven *āyurvedic* and one *unāni* dispensaries. The town is provided with tap water supply. The drains are stone-lined and the waste water is collected in cess-pools and then removed at a safe distance. Public places are provided with urinals and lavatories.

Fire Fighting Services

The municipality has maintained a well-equipped fire brigade consisting of six fire fighters.

Roads.

The road length within the municipal limits and constructed by it measures 133.676 km. (83 miles and a half furlong). Of these metalled roads account for 93.446 km. (58 miles and a half furlong) of which again 2.80 km. (one mile and six furlongs) are cement concrete, 6.437 km. (4 miles) are black topped and 91.192 km. (52 miles and two and half furlongs) are water-bound macadam.

Cremation and Burial grounds.

The cremation grounds and cemeteries are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

ANJANGAON BARI.

Añjangāṅv Bārī is a village in Amrāvatī tahsil about 6.437 km. (4 miles) to the east of Baḍnerā, being the next station on the Baḍnerā-Nāgpūr railway route. A small bullock cart track also connects Añjangāṅv Bārī with Baḍnerā. It has 905 houses with 4,306 inhabitants according to the 1961 Census. The name Bārī came to be so given because the majority of the inhabitants are *Bārīs*. The town has extensive cultivation, the chief products being betel-leaf and plantains. The place at one time was in the Peśavā's *Jāgīr*, and it is said that it was the scene of a fight and a crumbling mud fort bears witness to this truth. The village has a middle school and a high school. In the neighbouring hills of Cāndūr-Amrāvatī, some 4.82 km. (three miles) to the north of the village is a tank called Bhānkheḍ *talāv*. It was built during the famine of 1899-1900 with a view to irrigate as much land as was possible and to give relief to the famine-stricken areas. A pumping set is installed on the tank and water is carried to the fields by means of pipes. The area covered by the tank is approximately 4.428 hectares (six acres) and the area irrigated is 16.187 hectares (40 acres). There is a temple dedicated to Mārutī. It was built only 25 years ago. The village has also a mosque and a *dargāh* said to be over a hundred years old.

Samādhi of Rāmgīr Bāvā.

The *samādhi* of Rāmgīr Bāvā, a *sādhu* of Añjangāṅv Bārī is about 1.60 km. (a mile) from the village and was built about

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Samādhī of Rāmgīr Bāvā.

150 years ago. It is a spacious twenty-pillared *sabhāmanḍap* with four arches in the front. The inner shrine contains the *samādhī* of Rāmgīr Bāvā, where his *pādukās* are placed. In the compound are *samādhīs* of his followers shaded by a huge banyan tree. The edifice is built in stone and bricks and is unpretentious in style and design. A small platform of bricks has been constructed at the back of the shrine signifying the place where the *sādhu* sat for meditation. The *samādhī* has an *inām* land grant of about 10 hectares (25 acres). On *Mārgaśirṣa Vadya 9*, a fair attended by over 10,000 people is held in honour of Rāmgīr Bāvā.

ANJANGAON SURJI.

Añjangāṅv Surjī is a town in Daryāpūr tahsil with a population of 21,931 according to the Census of 1961. In fact Añjangāṅv and Surjī are two large villages very near to each other in the north of Daryāpūr tahsil. But they have been brought under the fold of a single municipality. Legend connects the name of Añjangāṅv with Kṛṣṇa's triumph over Rukmī and Surjī also known as Peṭh Muhammad Nagar after a Musalmān *fakir*, is said to be a corruption of Surañji, a tree with which the place was formerly overgrown. The public buildings of the town include a police station, sub-registrar's office, pancāyat samiti office, a branch office of the Maharashtra State Electricity Board, post and telegraph office, a telephone exchange, and a rest house. Añjangāṅv Surjī has two high schools, five middle schools (one Urdu and four Marāṭhī), five Marāṭhī primary schools, of which again two are for girls, and one Urdu primary school for girls. In 1963-64 the combined strength of all these schools was well over 4,660. The town has adequate medical facilities, there being a hospital, a primary health centre, a leprosy prevention centre, a family planning centre and a veterinary dispensary.

Añjangāṅv Surjī is an important centre producing betel and bidi leaves. A daily market dealing in betel leaves is held and these are sent largely to places like Poonā and Bombay. The weekly bazar brings in an annual cess of Rs. 15,500. About 5,000 weavers live in Añjangāṅv and they produce saris, *cuḷkhaṇs*, *dhotis*, *khadis* and turbans. There are 1,100 handlooms and 35 powerlooms working at Añjangāṅv, the weavers having organised themselves into a co-operative society. There are four gin presses and two markets, one for cotton and the other for grains, respectively. There is a Co-operative Central Bank and a Sale-Purchase Union.

The town is connected with both Daryāpūr and Acalpūr by good roads. Añjangāṅv holds an important place in the Anglo-Indian history for it was here that the second Marāṭhā war was concluded. The treaty with the Nāgpūr Rājā was signed on 23rd December 1803. On the same day negotiations between the British and the Sindes commenced, the British being represented by Sir A. Wellesley, Sir J. Malcolm and Mountstuart Elphinstone, and Marāṭhās by Viṭṭhal Pant. It was he to whom Wellington afterwards compared Talleyrand saying that the great

Frenchman was like the Brāhmaṇ 'but not so clever'[1]. The treaty was concluded and ratified on 30th of December 1803, and was described by Wellesley in a private letter to his brother as "a glorious and brilliant termination to the war and equal to the lustre of the campaign".

The Deśpāṇḍe family of Añjangāṅv was presented with a copy of the treaty in recognition of their hospitality; but this was destroyed in 1850 by the Rohillā troops of Ghulām Hasan Khān, the Navāb of Ellicpūr (now called Acalpūr). This worthy was at open war with the Munsif of Akoṭ, Sayyid Sirājud-din-Hasan[2]. The armies met at Añjangāṅv and the Navāb was almost beaten. His adversaries, however, turned their attention to plunder and in a plucky rally he won the day. 'Hundreds of Rajputs', writes a local historian 'were killed by the guns of Thomas Brown', an adventurer in the service of the Navāb. Seonāth Raṅgopant, the great Marāṭhī poet and religious teacher, was born at Añjangāṅv, but his fame was acquired elsewhere.

The town has one *maṭh, viz.*, that of Devnāth Mahārāj. Well-irrigation is widely prevalent and many an agriculturist has installed electric pumps on the wells which has greatly facilitated lift irrigation.

ASATPUR.

Āsatpūr is a village in Acalpūr tahsil with 655 houses and 3,218 inhabitants according to the 1961 Census and lies a few kilometres to the west of Āsegāṅv. Most of the village lands were granted to one Mehtāb Khān by Nizām Ali Khān, Nizām-us-sāni in 1763, and the *Inām* Commissioner in 1874 had continued Rāipūr and Śahpūr as *jāgīr* to his descendants with 100 *bighās* of land in Āsatpūr, as *inām*. In 1889, owing to family quarrels, the management of the *jāgīr* villages was taken out of the *jāgīr-dār's* hand and the land became, therefore, separate *inām* survey numbers. After independence, the *jāgīrdarī* and *ināmdarī* systems were abolished and the lands were declared to be *khālsā*. There is a vernacular school, a post office and a police station. A weekly bazar is held on Thursdays.

ASEGAON.

Āsēgāṅv is a village on the Amrāvatī-Acalpūr road, nearly 28·96 km. (18 miles) distant from the former place and just within the borders of the Acalpūr tahsil. The river Pūrṇā is crossed here by a strong bridge of four large spans. The village has 196 houses and 1,193 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census. Owing to its position as a half way house between the two cities and partly to the energies of its residents it has made much progress. The public buildings include a rest house, a police station, a middle school, civil and veterinary dispensaries, a *bālak mandir*, a leprosy hospital, a *cāvḍī* and a cattle pound. There is an old fortified house of red bricks belonging to a former *Paṭel* of the village. It is in bad repair.

BADNERA.

Badnerā, a town in Amrāvatī tahsil lying in 20° 52′ N and 77° 46′ E., is situated at a distance of nearly 9·65 km. (six miles) to

[1] See Kaye's "Life of Malcolm", Vol. I, pp. 240 and 242.

[2] Afterwards Sadarus Sadur or Sessions Judge under British rule.

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BADNERA.

the south of Amrāvatī, about 333.365 metres (1,093 feet) above sea level. It is an important junction on the Bombay-Nāgpūr rail route of the Central Railway, 663 km. (412 miles) from Bombay and about 173.80 km. (108 miles) from Nāgpūr. A shuttle train service runs between Badnerā and Amrāvatī, the district headquarters. Besides, Badnerā is connected with Amrāvatī by a fine tar road.

In 1961, the population was 23,840 and there were 5,011 houses. It is stated that the town was prosperous and in a flourishing condition at the close of the 18th century, and its subsequent decadence in the early years of the 19th century is said to be due to an imposition of Rs. 60,000 upon its *paṭel*, who was in the service of the Bhosles, which though he himself evaded by flight, was exacted from the inhabitants. Badnerā has been able to regain its former prosperity as it is favourably situated for transport and communications.

History.

It is mentioned in the Āin-ī-Akbarī as the headquarters of a *Parganā* in the *Sarkār* of Gāvil It was also known as Badnera Bibi as it formed with Karañja a part of the dowry of Daulat Śāh Begam, daughter of Daryā Imād Śāh of Berār, who was given in marriage to Husain Nizām Śāh of Ahmadnagar. Tradition, however, has identified the eponymous Bibi with the heroic Cand Sultānā and a small *cunam* shrine in the fort is dedicated to that lady. The only piece of information locally obtainable about her is that "after her death, her *jāgīr* lapsed to the Moghals". From 1741 A.D. to 1772 A.D. Badnerā was in the possession of the Nizām. It passed on to the Peśavā as a *jāgīr* in 1772. In 1817 it was restored to the Nizām. It was plundered by Rājārām Subāh in 1822, who partly demolished the fort and the town walls. These were built by Salābat Khān and Bahloi Khān of Ellicpūr and the fort though outwardly a mud *gaḍhi* was really something more having sub-terranean chambers in it, vaulted with brick, and a house, now ruined, on the summit, the residence of the former *Nāib Tahsildārs*. The revenue was divided between the Nizām and the Bhosles in the proportion of 2 to 1.

Descriptions.

The town has been divided into two sections, *viz.*, *Juni Bastī* and *Nayī Bastī* by the railway line running in between. The settlements in the new town are well ventilated whereas those in the old town are suffering from comparative congestion. Badnerā is surrounded by a large garden cultivation. It is said that the credit for this goes to one Mahināji, a former Paṭel and Caudharī who in 1640 brought gardeners from Jālnā at his own expense, dug wells and encouraged wet cultivation. *Pān* of a good quality and also plantains are grown in considerable quantities. Before the introduction of prohibition opium was successfully grown. To the south and clustered round the railway station is the new town of which the junction with the small railway colony forms the nucleus. The Roman Catholics have a church with a priest in attendance and the Anglican Chaplain also visits the place. A Christian cemetery was laid out in 1869 at a cost of Rs. 5,834 and close by is the Pārsee cemetery. Recently a temple dedicated

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Description.

to Rāṃ was built. There is also a shrine of Aṁbikā Devī, which attracts a fair at the time of *Navarātra mahotsava*. The attendance ranges from 3 to 4 thousand. The town has two *maṭhs*, viz., Sitārāmbāvā *maṭh* and Kāḷī Kāṁbḷīvālā *maṭh*, at the latter of which annually an *urus* is held attended by over 10,000 people. *Muśāirās* are arranged on the occasion.

The educational institutions include twelve primary schools, two middle schools and two high schools. There is also a Gujarāthī school. There is a Government conducted civil hospital called the Modi Hospital with ten beds with an outdoor patient ward attached to it receiving an annual grant of Rs. 5,000 from the municipality, a veterinary dispensary managed by the municipality towards which it spends an average annual sum of Rs. 2,500, a maternity home and a remand home of recent construction. Badnerā has a post and telegraph office and a police station. The former court house is now occupied by Government book depot and the magistrates' quarters have been made over to the police.

Revenue assessed annually amounts to Rs. 6,426·29. A weekly market is held on Mondays at which all types of vegetables, betel leaves and other local fruits are sold.

Municipality.
Constitution.

The Municipality at Badnerā was constituted in 1936. The area under its jurisdiction is 17.02 km² (6.57 square miles). Administration is carried on by the President, who is elected by the councillors from among themselves, with the necessary staff to assist him.

Finance.

In 1962-63 the income of the municipality, excluding that under extraordinary and debt heads was Rs. 3,63,716.00. In the same year the expenditure incurred on various items was Rs. 3,84.904.00. It excluded expenditure incurred due to extraordinary and debt heads.

The following statement gives the income and expenditure figures for the year 1962-63:—

Income	Rs.	*Expenditure*	Rs.
(1) Municipal rates and taxes.	2,00,252·00	(1) General administration and collection charges.	1,16,449·00
(2) Realization under special Acts.	2,749·00	(2) Public safety ..	24,157·00
(3) Revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation.	18,636·00	(3) Public Health and convenience.	1,18,558·00
(4) Grants and contributions	1,34,491·00	(4) Public instruction ...	1,09,596·00
(5) Miscellaneous ..	7,588·00	(5) Contributions ..	9,754·00
		(6) Miscellaneous ..	6,390·00
Total ..	3,63,716·00	Total ...	3,84,904·00

The municipality maintains a grain market, a weekly market and a daily market. It also maintains a small library housed in its own building. Municipal property includes 10 primary school buildings, 2 cattle pounds and the municipal office building.

Health and Sanitation.

For the most part, the town has stone-lined gutters with over 250 cess-pools to collect waste water. The drains were laid out in 1956-57 at a cost of Rs. 50,000. The new quarter has tap water but the old quarter is still dependent on wells for water supply. Municipality arranges inoculation and vaccination in times of emergencies.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory in the town. It is under the management of the municipal committee. In 1961-62, 2,700 pupils were receiving primary education. During the same year there were 78 teachers on the staff.

Roads.

The roads within the municipal limits are all metalled, the total length being 8.851 km. (5½ miles).

Cremation and Burial grounds.

Two cremation and burial places are maintained by the municipality for Hindus. The Muslims and Parsees maintain their own grounds.

BAIRAM GHAT.

Bairām Ghāṭ situated about 23 km. east of Acalpūr has a shrine frequented by both the Hindus and the Muhammedans. Although the place cannot be regarded as a town, it is worthy of mention on account of the great fairs held there in the months of *Kārtika* and *Mārgaśīrṣa* each year, and on account of its sanctity. The first fair is held on *Kārtika Paurṇimā* lasting for 10 days and the second on *Mārgaśirṣa Śuddha Pañcamī* also lasting for ten days. During the fairs more than a lakh of people gather and offer prayers before a rock, approached by a long flight of steps, considered by the worshippers to be God Bahirav. It is said that in olden days thousands of animals were sacrificed in front of the rock and though the place used to be several inches deep in blood, there was not a fly to be seen. There is a tank called Kāśi *talāv* which holds water up to March end, and every third year in September it is supposed to receive holy waters from Banāras, the place of pilgrimage of the Hindus. The water is exceedingly dirty but a dip in it has potent effects. It is told that there was a certain devotee who made a pilgrimage to Kāśi every year. But once on account of his illness he was unable to make his pilgrimage and hence he only prayed from his place; but to his surprise he found a spring springing out from nowhere which is the present Kāśi *Talāv*. One does not know how much element of truth there is in this story. The description given some decades back still holds good and the popularity of the fair has, if anything, increased. The fairs now last not for a single night but for ten days each. Cattle from the neighbouring hills are brought for sale, and lacquer work, agricultural implements, cloth and other merchandise are also displayed for sale. More than 500 booths are erected by the neighbouring *baniyās* and shop-keepers and a brisk trade takes place. The shrine is situated within the lands of the little village of Karañjā, over which now a temple, at a cost of Rs. 22,000 has been constructed Nearby

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there are two well built tanks of stone and mortar. It is 17·71 km. (11 miles) from Paratvāḍā on the road to Betul and is on the boundary of the district.

BAIRAT.

Bairāṭ the highest mountain in Melghāṭ division of the Sātpuḍās is situated some 9.65 km. (6 miles) from Cikhaldarā, and attains to a height of 1,179·130 metres (3,866 feet) above sea-level. Former surveys gave the height as 1,281 metres (4,200) and 1,216.645 metres (3,989), respectively. On the hill in a cave is an old temple of Vairāṭeśvar Mahādev which is said to be connected subterraneously with a temple of Devī somewhat nearer to Cikhaldarā. There is also a temple of Devī on the top. It was built in 1955.

BALGAON JAGIR OR VALGAON.

Balgāṅv Jāgir is a village in Amrāvatī tahsil with 7,398 inhabitants situated on the Amrāvatī-Acalpūr road about 8 km. (5 miles) from Amrāvatī. The road to Cāndūr Bazār branches off here. Valgāṅv was alienated in 1842 and 1850 by Mahārāja Candulāl Bahādur minister and Rājā Rāmbax for the upkeep of the temple of Sitārām Mahārāj at Hyderābād. The land revenue yield amounts to Rs. 11,044.12. The old *gaḍhi* at Balgāṅv has been converted into a temple of Bālājī, and the public buildings include a police station, a Marāṭhī school, a post office and a *sarāi.*

BELURA.

Belurā a small village in Morśi tahsil lying about 4.82 km. (3 miles) off Ṛddhapūr is connected with it by a narrow *kutcha* road. Its population in 1961 was 3,451. The village is primarily agricultural, its chief crops being jovar, wheat and cotton. There is a middle school, a separate primary school for girls and a private school teaching up to the tenth standard. It has been provided with an *āyurvedic* dispensary, a Child Welfare Centre and a *Bālak Mandir.* Drinking water is obtained from the river Peḍhī, flowing to its west as well as from the wells.

Puñjājī Mahārāj Samādhi.

The village is known for the *samādhi* of a noted saint by name Puñjājī Mahārāj. a Māḷī by caste. It is situated on the bank of the rivulet mentioned above. A small and simple structure has been erected over the *samādhi.* Inside are kept the *pādukās* or foot-wear of the saint. A priest performs the daily worship. A *saṁsthān* of the above mentioned saint has been created and is housed in an ordinary rectangular hall at one end of which is the idol of Dattātraya. It is supposed to be the same as worshipped by Puñjājī Mahārāj. A committee known as the *Kṣatriya Māḷī Saṁsthā* looks after its management. On *Mārgaśirṣa Paurṇimā* a fair lasting for three days is held in honour of Puñjājī Mahārāj, at the end of which the palanquin of Dattātraya is taken round the village in procession. The fair is attended by over 4,000 people.

BHATKULI.

Bhātkulī is a village in Amrāvatī tahsil about 12.87 km. (eight miles) to the west of the city on the banks of the Peḍhī, a tributary of the Pūrṇā), with 3,912 inhabitants according to the Census of 1961. It is connected with Amrāvatī and Kholāpūr by a fair-weather road. There is a very old mosque which is in a good condition to the present day. The village is well known for

BHATKULI. Ādināth Svāmī Temple.

the temple of Ādināth Svāmī and like all other Jain temples is noted for its exquisite architectural work. A compound wall with an entrance on the north, encloses within it some cloisters and the temple with a spacious *maṇḍap* paved with marble slabs. In the main shrine is the idol of Ādināth Svāmī, carved out of black basaltic rock, in a meditative pose. At the mouth of the *gābhārā* there is an image of a *Kṣetrapāl* besmeared with *śendur* or red lead. To the right of this *gābhārā*, in a chamber, are the idols of seven *tirthankaras* of the Jain hagiology. In two more similar chambers are many more idols of different *tirthaṅkaras*. The *gabhārā* and the chambers are in one line and the whole of it is decorated with arches bearing various designs and patterns. A gold plated spire adorns the *śikhar* and there is a small but neatly maintained terrace affording a dim and distant view of Baḍnerā and Amrāvatī towns. It is said that Rukmī after his ignominious defeat at the hands of Kṛṣṇa retired to this village and peacefully establishing his rule over it, built this temple. It was partly demolished during the destructive invasions of the Muslims, but was renovated by one Nemisāgār Mahārāj and later extended by one Gulāb Śāvjī of Nāgpūr. On *Kārtika Vadya Pañcamī* a fair lasting for three days is held. On this auspicious occasion the palanquin of Ādināth is taken in procession. Within the compound of the temple is conducted a girls' school.

BHILTEK.

Bhilṭek is a village in Cāndūr tahsil with 58 houses and a population of 305 as per the 1961 Census. It has a temple of Nāgobā also known as Śambusek Mahārāj in whose honour an annual fair is held. It is situated beside the river Kholād which has its source somewhere in the village Bhānkheḍ. The temple is a plain *cabutarā* or an elevated platform of cement concrete about 3.716 sq. metres (40' square), in the centre of which is the *Liṅga*, sheltered by a single hooded cobra of brass. Approach can be had by two flights of stairs built on the western and northern sides respectively. The shrine is deeply revered and a fair, lasting for a month, is held in the month of *Pauṣa* (about the end of December or beginning of January). It is attended by about 25,000 people. However, the importance of the fair is on the decline. In olden days it lasted for two and a half months and was attended by not less than 60,000 persons. It is believed by the people that if a person who is bitten by a snake burns some incense at the temple with appropriate prayers and swallows a little of the ashes, he would recover. A committee of six members looks after the maintenance of the shrine It receives a sum of Rs. 75 from the Pancāyat Samiti towards the same.

CHANDUR BAZAR.

Cāndūr Bazār is a town of much commercial importance in Acalpūr tahsil having, 1,394 houses and a population of 6,947 persons according to 1961 Census. It lies 35 km. (22 miles) north of Amrāvatī, the district headquarters, and 22 km. from the taluka headquarters, connected with both the towns by good roads. There is a small bridge on the river Pival and another. a much bigger

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CHANDUR BAZAR.

one, is being laid across the river Pūrṇā, which when completed would establish regular S. T. bus traffic between Cāndūr Bazār and Acalpūr. At present only private buses ply on this road. The traffic, however, is suspended during heavy rains. The bazar for which it is famous was established by Nāmdār Khān, Navāb of Acalpūr, in whose *jāgīr* it was, some 150 years ago. Competition from Morśī and Hivarkheḍ bazars and the system of purchase on large scale by wholesale firms in bringing direct from the villagers had reduced the importance of the bazar for some time. However, its proximity to Madhya Pradeś which makes it the assembling place of jaggery, gur, wheat, gum, etc., from fertile highlands of Khāmlā, Multāī and Betūl, has restored Cāndūr Bazār to its former importance. Weekly bazar is held on Sundays and gur, wheat, jovar, etc., are traded on wholesale as well as retail basis. The market place is well laid out with electric lamps, water troughs and nim trees for shade. There are several apparently prosperous factories. Among public buildings, two middle schools, one each under Government and municipal management, the former teaching up to VII standard and the latter up to VIII standard, two municipal primary schools, one Urdu primary school for girls, a police station under a sub-inspector, a sub-registrar's office, a veterinary and a civil dispensary, the latter having a small hospital accommodation attached to it, a sub-post and telegraph office, a branch of the District Central Co-operative Bank, *Pancāyat Samiti* office, office of the Maharashtra State Electricity Board, and a private high school named Kābrā High School, are important. While the civil dispensary is maintained by the municipality, the veterinary dispensary is maintained by the Zillā Pariṣad. Close to Cāndūr is the large village of Śirasgāṅv Band with 863 houses and 3,448 inhabitants. It has a combined school and post-office with a boarding house attached. There is also a Urdu primary school for girls and a private high school teaching up to S. S. C. standard.

Objects.
Mahādev Temple.

The temple of Mahādev is a small structure built in stone and mortar with a T-shaped *sabhāmaṇḍap*. Immediately on entrance there are extensions on both the sides and a narrow passage flanked by pillars leads to the *gābhārā*. The vestibule contains a *liṅga*. There is a *nandī* image outside.

Hanumān Temple.

The temple of Hanumān consists of only one hall with a small courtyard in the front. In the centre of the hall, which is approximately a square with an area of 2·787 metres square (30 feet square), is an octagonal pedestal on which is placed an image of Hanumān. On the same pedestal to the right is a small marble *liṅga* and to the left a *nandī*. To the right side of the courtyard wall pavilions have been provided for the pilgrims. To the left there are two small niches in which are placed a *liṅga*, with a *Nandī* image and an idol of Dattātraya, respectively, all of white marble. The deity is much revered by the people and every day especially on Saturdays many people visit the temple to offer prayers. *Hanumān Jayantī* attended by local populace is celebrated annually.

CHANDUR BAZAR.

Rām Mandir.

A small *mandīr* dedicated to Rāma stands in the midst of an extensive cotton plantation. It consists of only one small chamber and in it on a pedestal are placed the idols of Rāma, Sītā and Lakṣmaṇa all made of glazing white marble. In front of Rāma on a much smaller pedestal are placed his *pādukās*. The temple has been extended by means of shady piazzas on all the four sides.

Jummā Masjid.

Jummā *masjid* is the principal mosque of the town situated in the Pipalpurā locality. Prayers are offered on Fridays when Muslims assemble in large numbers. It has an entrance surmounted by three *minārs* leading into the courtyard. The *masjid*-hall, with four arches in front, is 12 x 8 metres (40' x 25'). Three *minārs* crown the *masjid*-top.

Besides the Jummā *masjid* the town has three other ordinary *masjids, viz.*, Bohorā *masjid* maintained by the Bohorā community, Kacchi *masjid* and the Kasabpurā *masjid*. All these mosques are much smaller and of ordinary construction. The town has also a *maṭh* belonging to the Mahānubhāv sect.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

The Cāndūr Bazār Municipality was constituted in 1949. Its jurisdiction extends over an area of 10.36 km². (4 sq. miles). The President with the assistance of the necessary staff carries on the municipal administration.

Finance.

In 1961-62 the income of the municipality, including that under extraordinary and debt heads, was Rs. 1,18,185.47. The sources of income were:—Municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 35,519.65; realization under special Acts, Rs. 233-90; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 19,593-70; grants and contributions, Rs. 34,665-70; miscellaneous, Rs. 3,742-85 and extraordinary and debt heads, Rs. 42,449-79. The expenditure, including that on extraordinary and debt heads was Rs. 1,14,703-39 during the same year. The heads of expenditure were general administration and collection charges, Rs. 12,397-35; public safety, Rs. 6,781-27; public health and convenience, Rs. 33,208-90; public instruction, Rs. 42,449-79, miscellaneous, Rs. 3,419-22 and extraordinary and debt heads, Rs. 16,446-86.

Health and Sanitation.

There are only *kutcha* drains to carry the waste water, care being taken to keep them clean. Private as well as public wells form the chief source of water supply. Civil and veterinary dispensaries maintained by the municipality and the Zillā Pariṣad render all the possible medical aid.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory in the town and is entrusted to the municipality for management. In 1961-62, there were 619 pupils in the primary schools. The number of teachers was 19. The total expenditure incurred on this behalf amounted to Rs. 22,413-32 in the same year.

Roads.

Only six kilometres of roads have so far been constructed. Of these metalled roads measure only 3 km.

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CHANDUR BAZAR. Municipality.

The Hindus, the Muslims and the scheduled caste communities maintain and use their own cremation or burial grounds.

There is one library managed by the municipality. It spends about Rs. 1,236 towards its maintenance and purchase of newspapers and magazines.

CHANDUR TAHSIL. Physical features.

Cāndūr tahsil is the south-eastern tahsil of Amrāvatī district lying between 20° 31′ and 21° 13′ N. and 77° 40′ and 78° 18′ E. with an area of 1,797.46 km². (694 sq. miles). It was formerly designated as Taḷegāṅv tahsil from the old tahsil town of that name which was most inconveniently situated at the extreme south. On the completion of the railway line Cāndūr was selected by virtue of its being on the line and the name of the tahsil was altered accordingly, transferring, at the same time, some of the southern villages to Yavatmāḷ. The tahsil at present contains 299 villages and two towns, including two villages which are wholly included in Government forest. The tahsil is bounded on the west by the Amrāvatī tahsil, on the south by Darwhā and Yavatmāḷ tahsils of Yavatmāḷ district, on the east by the Wardhā district and on the north by the Morśī tahsil. It lies in the Payanghāṭ or central valley of Berār and in the valley of the Wardhā river which bounds it on the east, but the uniform fertility of these two tracts its varied by the aridity of a low range of rocky hills which rises in the vicinity of Amrāvatī and extends eastward along the railway line for some distance beyond Cāndūr station. These hills and a smaller range in the extreme south-west are of a rocky and barren nature forming a sharp contrast to the general fertility of the tahsil; and the villages in the vicinity where the soil is shallow are very much dependent on timely rainfall for the yield of good crops. The tahsil consists of an undulating plain sloping from west to east covered for the most part with black alluvial soil varying in depth from a few inches on the tops of the ridges to many feet in the low lying areas. The eastern portion lying in the valley of the Wardhā river is by far the richest. The drainage of the country is from west to east in the direction of the Wardhā, the only river of importance. Besides the tahsil is also drained by two more rivers, the Bemlā and the Kholāt, which are not of any great magnitude. They are not perennial and although they form a fair sized river after their confluence, still during the hot weather water is only met with in pools. These rivers after entering the tahsil flow in a south-easterly direction and leave it at their confluence a few miles to the south of Taḷegāṅv; the combined stream under the same direction in the Yavatmāḷ tahsil empties itself in the Wardhā river.

Population.

The population of the tahsil according to the 1961 Census is 197,003 persons. Agriculture is the chief occupation, the bulk of the population being dependent upon it. A very small section of the population is engaged in various crafts and trades but these are in most cases subsidiary occupations. The tahsil contains the two towns of Cāndūr and Dattāpūr Dhāmaṇgāṅv both of which are municipal towns and 297 villages out of which 55

Population.

are uninhabited. Besides the abovementioned towns there are the following 13 villages which contain more than 2,000 inhabitants *viz.*, Tivasā, Taḷegāṅv Ṭhākur, Mozri, Śirajgāṅv, Warhā, Kurhā, Añjanśiṅgī, Āmlā, Mālkhed, Paḷaskheḍ, Mangruḷ Dastagīr, Taḷegāṅv Daśāsar and Ghuikheḍ and 33 villages exceeding 1,000 people.

Cotton and jovar are by far the most important crops. *Rabi* cultivation is not of importance here. There is practically no *potasthal* irrigation whether from streams, tanks and even that from wells (*motasthal*) has declined considerably. In 1963-64 the demand on account of land revenue and cesses amounted to Rs. 8,37,581 but the actual collection made during the same year according to treasury figures amounted to Rs. 6,95,336.

Miscellaneous.

For purposes of land records the tahsil has been divided into four revenue circles having headquarters at Tivasā, Dhamangāṅv, Cāndūr and Taḷegāṅv Daśāsar. It constitutes one police circle under an inspector and 6 police stations each under a sub-inspector at Tivasā, Kurhā, Cāndūr, Dattāpūr, Mangruḷ Dastagīr, and Taḷegāṅv Daśāsar. The tahsil has two development blocks one at Cāndūr and the other at Tivasā.

CHANDUR TOWN.

Cāndūr town or **Cāndūr Railway** as distinguished from Cāndūr Bazār is the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name and has according to the Census of 1961 a population of 9,348. Besides the tahsil office the town has a police station, a sub-treasury, a post and telegraph office, the office of the *Pancāyat Samiti*, three Marāṭhī primary and one Urdu schools, two high schools, one each under the management of the Government and Śivajī Education Society, a public library known as Bhāvgīr Vācanālaya and a branch of the Alliance Mission. Cāndūr once bustled with commercial activity and there were five gins, three presses, a cotton market and a petroleum depot. Oranges were also cultivated on a large scale but it has shown a considerable decline in recent years. Now there is only one ginning and pressing factory and an oil mill. The weekly bazar is held on Sundays. With the establishment of the municipality, there is a noticeable improvement in respect of health and sanitation. There is nothing in the town to suggest antiquity, but it has been identified with 'Candrapūr' which is mentioned in an inscription of the Vākāṭaka kings about the sixth century of the Christian era. There is a temple dedicated to Mahādeva, reported to be over a century old, with an enclosure around.

Objects.
Mahādev Mandir.

This *mandīr* is situated on the outskirts of the town, by the side of a stream flowing in north-south direction. A small bridge across the stream gives access to the temple. It has a tin-roofed *sabhāmaṇḍap* of recent construction and contains a stone image of *Nandi* and two phallic symbols. Nearby, close to the wall is a finely shaped idol of Gaṇapatī. In between the *gābhārā* and the *sabhāmaṇḍap* there is a small squarish chamber in which are placed an idol of Hanumān, a *Liṅga* and an idol of Mahādeva in a meditative pose. In the *gābhārā* is placed the main *Liṅga* of

CHAPTER 19. Places. CHANDUR TOWN. Objects. *Mahādev Mandir.*

Mahādeva. There are also idols of Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī placed in a niche in the back wall. It is crowned with a *śikhar* surmounted by a *triśula*. On the other side of the stream is a splendid open courtyard where people assemble on the occasion of the fair held on *Mahāśivrātra.* It lasts for two days. The outer *maṇḍap* and the compound wall were constructed in 1922-23. Land allotted for the maintenance of the temple measures 16.200 hectares (40 acres). Contributions are also received from the residents of the town. There are also temples dedicated to Hanumān and Bālājī as well as a Jain *mandir,* but they are of no consequence.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

The Cāndūr Railway Municipality was established in December 1948. Its jurisdiction extends over an area of 20·67 km² (7.98 sq. miles). The President who is elected by the councillors to head the committee carries on the administration with the assistance of the necessary staff.

Income and Expenditure.

Municipal income during the year 1961-62 amounted to Rs. 82.942-61. It comprised municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 33,365.50; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation Rs. 1,302.29; realization under special acts, Rs. 4,207.07; grants and contributions (for special and general purposes), Rs. 40,741.03 and miscellaneous, Rs. 3,326·72. Expen diture during the same year was Rs. 86,222.18. It comprised general administration and collection charges, Rs. 10,945.56; public safety, Rs. 6,161.87; public health, Rs. 44,018.44; public lighting, Rs. 22,830.52; contributions, Rs. 201.00 and miscellaneous, Rs. 2,064.79.

Markets.

A market has been constructed by the town municipality accommodating quite a large number of shops.

Health and Sanitation.

The town has a civil and a veterinary dispensary under the management of the municipality and the Zillā Pariṣad, respectively. There is also a maternity home under the mun'cipal management. In addition there is a Government and a privately conducted hospital. The drains are generally stone-lined but some *kutcha* drains also exist. Drinking water is obtained from wells. public as well as private.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory in the town and is conducted by the municipality. In 1962-63 there were 750 pupils receiving primary education. The number of teachers was 22 during the same year.

Roads.

Length of the roads within the municipal limits is only 8 km. (5 miles), all of which are metalled.

Cremation and Burial Places.

The cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

CHIKHALDARA.

Cikhaldarā situated in latitude 21° 29′ N. and longitude 77° 22′ E, is a fine hill station in Amrāvatī district. The plateau occupied by the civil station is about 1.2075 km. (three quarters of a mile) broad and about 1.60 km. (a mile) in length, but it has easy access to

spacious table land surrounding it and to many picturesque valleys and there is ample scope for expansion. About 2.415 km. (mile and a half) to the south-west lies the fortress of Gāvilgaḍ and Paratvāḍā or Acalpūr camp, the nearest town of any importance is reached by a variety of roads and footpaths, the best of which winds up through Ghāṭaṅg and Silona with a fascinating scenery for a distance of 48.28 km. (30 miles). Now buses ply on this route all the year round making travel more convenient and speedy. The rest house at Ghāṭaṅg was built in the days gone by to serve as a convenient half way halting place as only horse-carts or *toṅgās* could have access to the hill station. They however, travelled at a very slow speed. The thirty-four kilometres (twenty-one miles) surface road via Dhāmaṇgāṅv and Mota which marks the track followed by Wellesley's force in 1803 has since been converted into a thoroughfare. Cikhaldarā is about 100 km. (62 miles) distant from Amrāvatī, the district headquarters and is accessible by a fine motorable road

Apart from the fort of which it commands several splendid views, Cikhaldarā has little or no history. It has now been turned into a hill station and is the prominent summer health resort of the Vidarbha region. It was discovered according to Nurul-Berar by Captain Robinson of the Hyderabād Contingent Battery in A.D. 1823 the very year in which regular troops were first stationed at Acalpūr, but bungalows were not built there, it seems, till 1839. The height of the Cikhaldarā hill station above sea level is 118.130 metres (3.666 feet). Its average mean maximum and minimum temperature is 40.6°C (105° f.) and 1.7°C (35° f.) respectively. But even in the hottest month of the season a crisp and cool breeze almost always blows and except for a short period at noon during day, heat is never oppressive. The climate is pleasant during September and October. The average annual rainfall is 1905.60 m.m (75") almost all of which is received between June and September. Cikhaldarā seems to have derived its present name from a valley to the east of Gāvilgaḍ fort, known as Kīcāklarā. It is believed that Kīcaka was killed here by Bhīma during the *Adnyāta Vās* (living incognito) of the Pāṇḍavas. It is often called as Cikhaldarā also. The village variously known as Bairāṭ or Vairāṭ lying 9.66 km. (six miles) to the west of Cikhaldarā is taken as synonymous with Virāṭanagarī where Paṇḍavas had sojourned in disguise for one year during the period of their exile.

The popularity of the hill station was very soon established and Meadows Taylor mentions its delights as early as 1840 when he was here with the troops. He visited Acalpūr again as the Deputy Commissioner on 9th December 1857 and notes "how welcome were the large baskets of delicious peaches from Captain Hamilton's garden at Cikhaldā and I wished I could go up there again and revisit the old scenes". Peach is still cultivated in Amzarī garden and the Company *Bagicā*, now popularly known as the Forest Garden, as it is under the management of the Forest Department, though it has degenerated considerably since Meadows Taylor's time. Coffee of the finest quality is grown in the public

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CHIKHALDARA.

garden formerly under the municipality, but now taken over by the Forest department and in good many private gardens and especially on the land belonging to the Roman Catholic Mission. At one time a great future was anticipated from coffee and tea plantations at Cikhaldarā. But the tea plantation has now entirely disappeared. Coffee plantation occupies an area of over 97.200 hectares (240 acres) and the Government are soon going to open a coffee plantation research centre. Besides peach cultivation the Forest Garden contains various European and Tropical trees and shrubs, fruits and flowers. In a wild state roses, clematis, orchids, ferns and balsams, zinnias and ginger abound. On the upper plateau is situated the Cikhaldarā Public Garden or Cikhaldarā *Bagicā* covering an area of 5.260 hectares (13 acres). It is noted for very beautiful flowers and is the loveliest of the gardens at Cikhaldarā. Good variety of mangoes, plums and peaches are grown in this garden. Among the trees the prominent are pine, cypress, silver-oak, eucalyptus, etc. At a distance of nearly 6.43 km. (four miles) from Cikhaldarā along the Cikhaldarā—Paratvāḍā road there is another garden known as Āmzarī garden, supplying vegetables and fruits to the town of Cikhaldarā. The principal difficulty in extending the plantation here is that of scarcity of water, though it has been considerably alleviated by pumping water into reservoirs from the Bīr tank, which is the major source of water-supply.

Cikhaldarā plateau is surrounded by many deep valley glades. The scenery is magnificent and the points of the station command in turn distant views of the Nimār and Mahādeva hills to the west and north and wooded valleys lying closer at hand to the Balāghāṭ beyond. Footpaths cut in the hillsides afford pleasant walks on the lower ridges, such as that which leads to the Devil's Punch Bowl or *Andherā Khorā* (the Valley of Darkness), a splendid deep chasm walled in by a circle of cliffs 60 to 90 metres high, down one side of which in the rains, tumbles a waterfall running up to the Bīr tank. Close by is a fine triple echo. Mountaineers exert themselves on many precipitous pathways and can even climb miniature Matherān, though one has to go more down than uphill to reach it. Three kilometres (two miles) away at the bottom of a secluded valley lies the village of Mariampūr.

Points.

Besides the above noted point i.e. Devil's Punch Bowl the points enumerated below are of interest to the visitor.

Hurricane point, overlooking the valleys below, commands a fine view of the Gāvilgaḍ fort, the extensive plains below and the serpentine course of the river Candrabhāgā.

The Monkey Point affords a picturesque view of the deep and dark valley glades with dense forests.

The Long point is about 2.415 km. (one and a half miles) from Cikhaldarā and is accessible by a winding road cut through the rocky hills. It commands a view of the rich and widely spread forests of the Melghāṭ tahsil and the river Sipnā.

Points.

Rāvī point is near Sakkar tank, one of the two tanks, which supply water to Cikhaldarā. Nearby in a cave there is a temple of Goddess, revered and honoured by the people of Melghāṭ tahsil.

Vairāṭ point is at a distance of about ten kilometres (six miles) and is the highest of all the points of Cikhaldarā. The place is associated with Ancient Indian history for it is considered to be the ruling seat of King Virāṭ with whom the Pāṇḍavas are supposed to have resided during the period of their exile. It commands a grand view of the entire Sātpuḍā range in Melghāṭ tahsil Candrabhāgā river rises just below the Vairāṭ plateau.

Besides the ones noted above there are a good many other points which have not yet been developed. Plans are afoot to develop and give them suitable names.

Cikhaldarā Town.

In 1961 Cikhaldarā had a population of 1,338 inhabitants, but the figure is, however, swelled in the hot weather by the people coming from the Amravati district and outside. Even the indigenous population is largely dependent upon its popularity as a health resort and consists mainly of Gavlis, Musalmāns, Mahārs and Goṇḍs, Korkus forming a comparatively smaller section. The town is divided into two parts, the upper and the lower plateau, the difference of height between these two parts being of only 24 metres (80 feet). On the upper plateau are situated the circuit house, a rest house, two class I bungalows of the Forest Department, a post and telegraph office, a civil dispensary and a few missionary bungalows. The Tribal Welfare Department manages a school here and the Roman Catholic Mission has its mission house and the female orphanage. On the lower plateau is chiefly the settlement of the local residents The weekly bazar is held on Sundays. In addition to this there are the shops, municipal *sarāī*, a police station, a middle school also conducted by the Tribal Welfare Department, quarters for the officials of the Revenue and Forest departments and a few privately owned bungalows. Around the Bīr tank a new orphanage has been started and the Government have built a holiday camp. A high school is conducted by the Śivājī Education Society.

In addition to the rest houses, bungalows of the Forest depart ment, a circuit house, a holiday camp and the municipal *sarāī*, the bungalows belonging to the order of the St. Francis de Sales are let during the season to the visitors making a short stay.

Amusements

In days gone by, when Cikhaldarā was the summer headquarters of not only the departments of the Berar administration but also of the military from Acalpūr, Hiṅgolī and elsewhere, it was a place of considerable gaiety. The band of one or the other of the corps stationed at Acalpūr used to play every evening at Band Point and the camping ground would be covered with tents. Today the greatest charm of the place is its quiet peacefulness. It is a fairly cool retreat from the burning heat of the plains during the summer, but is at its best in October, when the hill sides are clothed in white clematis and there is a crisp coolness in the air.

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CHIKHALDARA.

Amusements.

Its wildest distractions do not run beyond the tennis courts. Wealth of natural scenery apart, in which Cikhaldarā abounds, there are all the amenities which go to make it a hill-station of modern type. The Cikhaldarā Club maintains two excellent tennis courts, which dry quickly after the rains, and two badminton courts. The Cikhaldarā Krīḍā Maṇḍaḷ conducted by the local amateurs provides many indoor as well as outdoor games. Cikhaldarā also affords ample wild game to the *śikārī*, tigers and panthers being frequent, but the Government have restricted the shooting in view of its policy of wild life protection. Destructive carnivora are, of course, not protected.

The great difficulty of Cikhaldarā which prevents it even to-day from becoming a large hill station is the scarcity of water. There are six tanks (Sakkar, Kālāpāṇī, Dhobī, Macchī, Nāgjhirā and Bīr *talāv*), but the majority of these are at a considerable distance from the station on the road to Gāvilgaḍ and are not, therefore, of much use except to *dhobīs*. Almost all the water that Cikhaldarā receives is taken from the Śakkar and the Bīr *talāvs*. Near the tahsil office two reservoirs have been built and water is pumped into them and then distributed. Though this arrangement has very much alleviated the scarcity of water, the problem of adequate water supply still persists. The Sakkar tank has been brought under pisciculture by the Fisheries department with good results. Near the Bīr tank a large nursery garden has been set up thereby enhancing the aesthetic beauty of the station.

Municipality.

Constitution.

The Cikhaldarā municipality was established in 1948 and has an area of 15.98 km.^{2} (6·11 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The municipal committee is composed of ten members all of whom are nominated by the Government. The Collector, Amrāvatī acts as the President while the Naib Tahsildar acts as the Secretary.

Finance.

Municipal income amounted to Rs. 38,267.53 in 1961-62. It comprised municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 7,878.66, revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 6,865.96, grants and contributions for special and general purposes, Rs. 23,421.79 and miscellaneous, Rs. 101.12. During the same year the expenditure was Rs. 31,565.59 excluding that incurred on account of extraordinary and debt heads. The expenditure heads were general administration and collection charges, Rs. 5,377.69, public safety, Rs. 3,792.76 public health and convenience and public instruction, Rs. 22,290.49 and miscellaneous, Rs. 104.65.

Health and Sanitation.

The Pancāyat Samiti conducts one civil and one veterinary dispensary. The town has a natural drainage.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory and is conducted by the Tribal Welfare Department.

Roads.

The total length of roads within the municipal limits is 19.32 km. (twelve miles) of which only 0.60375 km. (3 furlongs) are metalled.

Cremation and Burial Places.

Cremation grounds and burial places are managed by the respective communities.

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Places.

DARYAPUR.

Daryāpūr with a population of 15,182 persons according to the 1961 Census, is the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name. It is situated on the Candrabhāgā river and is 29 km. (eighteen miles) distant from Murtizāpūr by road. It is also connected with Amrāvatī, the district headquarters by a good road. Within a kilometre (half a mile) of it lies the large trading suburb of Banosā with a population of 3,492 and close by is the village of Bābhaḷī with 3,383 inhabitants. Daryāpūr is a centre of cotton trade and there are two gins and two presses. In the year 1961-62 the revenue accrued from the cotton market was Rs. 4,347.50 Its weekly bazar yields a cess income of Rs. 5,625 The public buildings include the tahsildar's office, a judge's court, a police station, a sub-registry, a municipal office, a P. W. D.'s office a Block Development office, a post-office and the central co-operative bank. The educational institutions include an Arts and Commerce College, three high schools one being exclusively for girls, two middle schools, one each for boys and girls, and five Marāṭhī primary schools and an equal number of Urdu primary schools. At a short distance from the town, on the Murtizāpūr road a hall has been erected which contains a library and a *balak mandir*. The town derives its name from Daryā Imād Śāh, the third of the independent Kings of Berar (A.D. 1526-1560) who was its founder.

Objects.

The town has temples dedicated to Rāma and Viṭṭhal. There are also two mosques. The Rāma *mandīr* is one of the oldest temples of the town with a spacious *maṇḍap*. The *gābhārā* contains the idols of Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa and Sītā exquisitely carved out of marble stone. A *śikhar* with a gold plated spire crowns the *gābhārā*.

Viṭṭhal Mandir.

The shrine of Viṭṭhala Rakhumāī has a *sabhāmaṇḍap* supported on twenty pillars decorated with beautiful carvings. The door of the *gābhārā* is plated with brass sheets Besides the main idols of Viṭṭhala and Rakhumāī, idols of many other deities like Hanumān, Gaṇapati and Kṛṣṇa could also be seen.

Municipality.

Constitution.

Dāryapūr municipality was constituted in 1937 and has at present an area of 2.59 km.^{2} (one square mile) under its jurisdiction. The President is elected by the members from amongst themselves. It is he who looks after the municipal administration with the assistance of the necessary staff.

Finance.

In the year 1962-63 municipal income amounted to Rs. 7,62,646. As against this it had to spend a sum of Rs. 5,53,302, during the year under report.

Health and Sanitation.

There is a veterinary dispensary under the management of the municipality. The town has only *kutcha* drains. Water supply is obtained from the river and wells but the town would receive tap water on completion of the Daryāpūr water-works now under construction. It is estimated to cost Rs. 8,53,616. It is financed by Government.

CHAPTER 19. Places. DARYAPUR. Municipality. *Education.*

Primary education is compulsory in the town. It is under the management of the town municipality. The net expenditure incurred in this behalf in 1962-63 amounted to Rs. 85,538. During the same year 1,465 pupils were receiving primary education under the guidance of 60 teachers.

Roads.

Within the municipal limits the length of the roads is 4.82 km. (three miles) only. All the roads are unmetalled.

Cremation and Burial Places.

Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

DARYAPUR TAHSIL. Physical Features.

Daryāpūr tahsil is the western tahsil of Amrāvatī district, with an area of 1,307.95 km.[2] (505 square miles). Daryāpūr was formerly a tahsil of Acalpūr district but was incorporated with the rest of that district in Amrāvatī in August, 1905. The tahsil contains 277 villages out of which two are towns, *viz.*, Añjangāñv and Daryāpūr, the latter of which is the headquarters of the tahsil. Of these, 23 villages are uninhabited. The tahsil lies in the fertile Pāyinghāṭ valley, being bounded on the west and the south by the Ākoṭ, Akolā and Murtizāpūr tahsils of Akolā district, on the east by the Amrāvatī tahsil and on the north partly by the extensive jungles of Melghāṭ tahsil and partly by Acalpūr tahsil. Daryāpūr presents to the eye an almost perfectly level plain with only a slight inclination towards the south, unbroken by hills. In consequence of the very gentle fall southwards in the direction of the Pūrṇā river the soil is able to retain the monsoon showers for a longer time than if the surface had been more undulating or the slope greater, and the effect is an increased amount of fertility. Some parts of the tahsil contain large mango groves, and there are several valuable *bābul* forests. The Pūrṇā, the Candrabhāga, the Sahuūr and the Bordī flow from north to south. The supply of water in the first of these is perennial, and in the others there is flowing water until late in the hot weather, large pools remaining till the onset of the rains. These streams are of great importance to the tahsil for the well-water is generally very brackish and hence river water is preferred by the inhabitants for drinking. At times the villagers find great difficulty during the hot weather when the rivers practically dry up and potable water strikes only at great depths, which makes the digging of wells very costly. They are of little use agriculturally except in the capacity of channels for draining the land. Except in the immediate proximity of the larger rivers where the surface soil is much cut up and is mixed with gravel and otherwise impoverished by the yearly monsoon floods, the soils of the tahsil are of a very superior moisture and are capable of producing rich crops for a succession of years without any artificial assistance.

Population.

The 1961 Census indicates the population figures for the tahsil as 174,397 as against 145,890 in 1951.

Agriculture.

The crops grown in the tahsil are cotton, jovar, wheat, linseed, *tur*, rice and gram. Betel leaves grown here, though on a small scale, have some local reputation.

CHAPTER 19. Places. DARYAPUR TAHSIL. Miscellaneous.

For purposes of land records, the tahsil has been divided into four Revenue Inspectors' circles with headquarters at Khallār, Daryapūr, Āñjangāṅv and Aduhā. It constitutes a single police circle under an Inspector and contains four station houses, each under a Sub-Inspector.

DATTAPUR-DHAMANGAON.

Dattāpūr-Dhāmaṇgāṅv (pop. 12,261) in Cāndūr tahsil, is a municipal town of great commercial importance. Formerly the two villages of Dattāpūr and Dhāmaṇgāṅv were apart, one lying to the north and the other to the south of the present railway station but came to be subsequently joined by the growth of a large commercial suburb known as Hordergañj, named after a former Deputy Commissioner. A police station, a sub-registry, a sub-treasury, a post and telegraph office, a *dāk* bungalow, a branch of the State Bank of India and a co-operative bank are among its public buildings. The railway has given an impetus to the commercial and industrial growth of the town, there being a cotton and a grain market, three ginning and pressing factories, two *dāl* mills and seven oil mills. The *dāk* line for Yavatmāl starts from here and hence this railway station has become an outlet for the commerce of that district as well. A large weekly bazar is held on Sundays and trade in cloth, grains and other articles also is carried on. The supply of water is good and the neighbourhood of the town, where *sindi* trees grow in abundance was once very much noted for its toddy. The only object of interest is a Rāma *Mandir*.

Municipality. Constitution.

Dhāmaṇgāṅv municipality was constituted in the year 1940. Its population increased from 10,883 in 1951 to 12,262 in 1961. Municipal jurisdiction extends over an area of 11.01 km.²(4.25 sq. miles). The President elected by the Councillors carries on the administration aided by the necessary staff.

Income and Expenditure.

In 1962-63, municipal income amounted to Rs. 3,77,618. It comprised municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 2,09,496 ; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 7,468 ; grants and contributions for special and general purposes, Rs. 54,506 ; and miscellaneous, Rs. 1,06,148. Expenditure during the same year on various items of public welfare and general administration was Rs. 3,65,671. The expenditure heads were general administration and collection charges, Rs. 49,793 ; public safety, Rs. 13,878 ; public instruction, Rs. 57,727 ; public health and convenience, Rs. 1,68,957 and miscellaneous, Rs. 73,316.

Municipal Works.

In Dattāpūr area the municipality has provided a place for weekly market as also for a bi-weekly market in Dhāmaṇgāṅv area. A small meat market and a building for the octroi department have also been built.

Cremation and Burial Places.

Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the respective communities.

Health and Sanitation.

There are only *kutcha* drains in the town. However, there is a proposal to convert these into *pucca* stone-lined gutters. The waste water is collected in cess pools. Towards the provision of

CHAPTER 19. Places. DATTAPUR-DHAMANGAON. Municipality.

medical aid a civil hospital, a civil dispensary and a veterinary dispensary have been established. There is also a maternity home.

Education.

Primary education is compulsory in the town and its management vests in the municipality. For this purpose it receives grants from the State Government. Besides the primary schools conducted by the municipality there are three high schools, an Arts and Commerce College and four montessori schools.

Roads.

The length of cement concrete roads within the municipal limits is nearly 4 km. Of the remaining 11.42 km. of roads only a stretch of 4.42 km. is metalled.

Public squares are provided with mercury lamps.

DEURWADA OR DEVALVARA.

Deūrvāḍā is a village in Acalpūr tahsil largely dependant on agriculture. It has 477 houses inhabited by 2,246 inhabitants according to the 1961 Census. It is situated on the Pūrṇa river-bank about 22 km. (14 miles) from Acalpūr, and was a century and a half ago a town of much importance, containing some 5,000 houses. The tahsil authorities used to reside here, then. Now it has become an insignificant village but is worthy of notice on account of its ancient temples of Narsiṁha, Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī and Hanumān. It is considered to be a sacred place. The chief crops produced are cotton, jovar, *tur* and betel-nuts. Well irrigation is widely prevalent, there being as many as 23 irrigation wells irrigating nearly 419 hectares of land. The village has a middle school which had 303 students in 1962-63.

Objects. *Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī temple.*

The ancient temple of Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī stands on the right bank of the Pūrṇā at a spot where the Megha flows into the Pūrṇā. A *ghāt* leading down to the river from the temple has been built. Half way up the *ghāṭ* on either side there are two small shrines which contain a set of eleven and a half *Liṅgas* carved out of a single block of stone and are said to be *svayaṁbhū*. It is told that one of the *Liṅgas* which was coming up to complete the set disappeared at the unholy touch of an ass and hence the set remained incomplete. That particular spot is still shown by the village folk. The left hand side shrine, in addition to the *Liṅga* set, also contains idols of Śrī Kṛṣṇa, Gaṇapati and a certain Ṛṣi. A lofty gate leads into the courtyard containing three identical shrines, close to one another, of unequal size. The first one which is bigger than the other two contains a *Liṅga* sheltered by a five hooded brass cobra. In the background in separate niches in the wall are placed the images of Viṣṇu, Gaṇapati and Annapūrṇā. An attractive *śikhar* crowns the shrine. In the second shrine is the Mohinī incarnation of Viṣṇu. The third, which is a little bigger than the second has the idols of Viṭṭhal, his consort Rakhumāī and Rāī. By the side is an image of Garūḍa. There is another set of these idols in the back wall of the courtyard and exactly opposite it in a small shrine is an idol of Hanumān. The temple edifices are constructed of stone and mortar and though old are still in a very good condition. As the

Places.

DEURWADA OR DEVALVARA

temple is on a higher level overlooking the confluence of the rivers one can have a beautiful view of the surrounding country. It was built during the days of Salābat Khān by one Mahādeva Rāv Lakṣmaṇa of Nāgpūr at a cost of Rs. 15,000.

Objects. *Karaśuddhi Tirtha.*

Near the *ghāṭ* is a place called 'Kara Śuddhī Tīrtha' or the holy place of cleansing hands. Legend tells that Narsiṁha having killed Hiraṇya Kaśipū, was able to wash the bloodstains from his hands at Deūrvāḍā after failing everywhere else. A shrine dedicated to Narsiṁha is built here.

Narsiṁha Temple.

Not far from the temple of Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī on the knoll of a hill is the shrine of Narsiṁha. It is square in shape and there is circumambulatory passage round the main shrine. The idol of Narsiṁha is in a sitting posture and to its left and right in small niches are the images of Lakṣmī and Pralhād respectively. An ornate *śikhar* with a minaret-like spire adorns the temple The whole temple structure is 4.645 sq. metres (50 feet square). On *Vaiśākh Śuddha Caturthī* a fair is held in honour of the deity. The maintenance expenditure is met from the income of 1.619 hectares (four acres) of land belonging to the temple and the donations received from the people. Though Deūrvāḍā has lost much of its former importance yet it is still revered and considered to be a holy place. Its name has been mentioned in the Hindu mythology in the context of the killing of *Hiraṇya Kaśipū* at the hands of Narsiṁha.

Mosque.

There is also a mosque said to be over 350 years old.

DEVGAON

Devagāṅv, a small and insignificant village in Acalpūr tahsil and with a population of 216 as per the 1961 Census lies at the foot of the hills through which the so-called Vastāpūr short-cut from Acalpūr to Cikhaldarā runs. Between it and the fort, when there were no means of transport, a small stable was established at the foot of the hill to accommodate ponies of travellers using the path. Even now the stable, though practically in ruins, can be seen. The sole claim to distinction which Devagāṅv possesses is that, preliminaries of peace between the East India Company and the Bhosle were signed here on the 17th December, 1803, four days after the capture of Gāvilgaḍ by Wellesley

DABHERI.

Dābherī is a small village of 598 inhabitants, not far from Rithpūr, in Morśī tahsil. The only objects of interest in the village are the lake and the temple of Dhābeśvara.

Objects *Lake.*

Its chief claim to mention lies in a large natural lake fed by natural springs. The waters of the lake are utilised for irrigation and a temple dedicated to Dhābeśvara, a deity worshipped by the Mahānubhāvas stands on its banks. To prevent the lake from getting silted as also to provide water for irrigation, a bund of the length of 1017 metres (3,366 feet) was built in 1950. It has a catchment area of 303·50 hectares (750 acres). In times of drought the water is also utilised for drinking. It used to be an excellent spot for duck shooting but now game hunting is

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DABHERI.

Objects.

prohibited by Government. It has been brought under pisciculture by the Fisheries Department of the Government of Maharashtra and a large number of fishes of various types are introduced every year.

Dhābeśvar Temple.

Situated beside the lake is an old temple of Dhābeśvara, an incarnation of Śaṅkar, held in great reverence by the *Mahānubhāvas.* The idol is of considerable antiquity. Though the temple edifice is small it is artistically designed. In honour of Dhābeśvar Mahādeva fairs, attended by over 2,000 persons, are held on *Āṣāḍhī* and *Caitrī Paurṇimās.* The fairs come to an end with the drawing of the chariot on the last day. At Akhatvāḍā, a small village close by, is a similar temple dedicated to Rokḍeśvar which is also a *Mahānubhāva* shrine.

DHAMANGAON.

Dhāmaṇgāṅv is a village in Acalpūr tahsil with 473 houses and a population of 2,538 persons according to 1961 Census. It is on the Acalpūr Cikhaldarā road from which the ascent to the hill station begins. It lies about 9 km. (6 miles) from Paratvāḍā and has a weekly bazar on Wednesday which serves the neighbouring tracts of Melghāṭ. It has considerable cultivation of chillis, which are generally taken to Paratvāḍā market for sale.

DHAMANTRI.

Dhāmantrī is a small village of 545 inhabitants in Cāndūr tahsil situated on the banks of the river Wardhā, north of Kauṇḍiṇyapūr. There is a primary school and an ancient temple of Mahādeva. at a distance of about 202 metres to the south of the village, situated on a rising ground in the midst of a small *bābul* grove. On its southern side there are the extensive Government forests and on the eastern, the river Wardhā. The original structure of the temple was *Hemāḍpantī* but it has now lost its original architectural style due to renovations in subsequent periods. In recent years it has been greatly extended, and now has a spacious 20-pillared *sabhāmaṇḍap* and a *ghaṇṭāghar*, or bell, chamber. A compound wall encloses the temple and the area thus enclosed including that occupied by the temple is approximately 45 metres $\times$ 30 metres (150′ $\times$ 100′). To the east of the temple within the compound is the *ghaṇṭāghar* with a storey above and a cellar below. On the upper storey is hung a huge bell made of *aṣṭa dhātū* or eight metals weighing approximately 393·24 kg. (400 seers). It was donated by one Śrī Puñjābrāv Mañjrimasla. The groundfloor contains an image of *Nandī* while the cellar is occupied by a *Liṅga.* A stone image of a tortoise as well as images of Gaṇapati, Dattātraya, Hanumān and Kapilmunī decorate the *sabhāmaṇḍap*. Besides the Mahādeva *liṅga* the inner shrine which is 1.115 m^2 (twelve feet square) holds a white marble idol of Pārvatī. Some of the more prosperous devotees have gifted 50·625 hectares (125 acres) of land to the temple. There is a trust to look after the property and maintenance of the temple. A fair in honour of the deity is held on *Mahāśivrātra* day and is attended by about 4,000 people.

DHARNI.

Dhārṇī is the largest village in Melghāṭ tahsil with 628 houses and a population of 2,783 persons according to 1961 Census. It

DHARNI.

is the headquarters of Melghāṭ tahsil and forms the terminus of the high road through the hills from Acalpūr to Burhānpūr. It is 96·540 km. (60 miles) distant from Acalpūr and 148 km. (92 miles) from Amrāvatī. Dharṇī was noted for the malaria infested areas, but these have since been cleared of malaria and brought under cultivation. The land is very fertile, chief crops being wheat and gram. For irrigation river Tāpī has been tapped here. Melghāṭ tahsil is rich in timber forests and hence the State Government have established a timber depot here. Most of the timber after local consumption is chiefly exported to Bombay. There are the offices of the *Tahsildar,* State Electricity Board, Tribal Welfare Officer and the Pañcāyat Samiti. It has a branch of the District Co-operative Bank and two other Co-operative Societies. The village has a primary School, a Multi-purpose High School, a Post-office and a Police station. A dispensary is conducted by the Zillā Pariṣad. Recently a maternity home has been established.

GANOJA.

Ganojā is a small village in Amrāvatī tahsil with 1,961 inhabitants. It is well-known for the fair held in honour of Devī on the bright 15th of *Mārgaśirṣa* (December). It is attended by over 5,000 persons. The more devout spend three nights at the shrine.

GAVILGAD FORT.

Gāvilgaḍ : the fort of Gāvilgaḍ took its name from the pastoral *Gavḷīs* centuries ago. They have deserted the fort now. There are no inhabitants save the occasional visits of a panther or two and the herds of cattle who come to drink water from the tanks which once supplied water to a stately court and a strong garrison. Even to-day two tanks are in good condition but they are heavily silted and there is an abundance of shrub growth inside them which has rendered the waters putrid and useless for drinking. The tanks are known as *Devatalāv and Khāntalāv*. In the monsoon the water overflows in a torrent down the precipitous hill side. The *darbār* steps on which princes had held audience are a favourite resort for picnic from Cikhaldarā in the hot weather, the great banyan tree which has spread its boughs across them affording a delightful shade, while another class of sightseers has scribbled its names on the walls of the lesser mosque. The Archaeological department has concluded that it is impossible to do anything to restore the ruins ; and though money is spent from time to time in removing rank vegetation from the walls, they are bound, as years pass by, to lapse into greater decay.

GHUIKHED.

Ghuikheḍ with 569 houses and a population of 2,537 according to the 1961 Census is a large village in Cāndūr tahsil lying about 19 km. (12 miles) south of Cāndūr Railway, the tahsil headquarters. The village has a Primary School, a Middle School, a *Bālak Mandir* and a Post-Office. There is a shrine dedicated to Benḍojī Bābā in whose honour a fair attended by nearly 4,000 persons is held annually in the month of *Māgha.* A dispensary is maintained by the temple authorities.

CHAPTER 19. Places. HIVARKHED.

Hivarkheḍ situated at a distance of over 9 km. (6 miles) from Morśī, is a small village in Morśī tahsil with 831 houses and a population of 4,451 as per the 1961 Census. There are four educational institutions which include a Primary School, a Middle School, a High School named after Mahātmā Phule and a *Bālak Mandir*. Besides it has a *sarāi* and a Post office and an *Ayurvedic* dispensary conducted by the Zillā Pariṣad. The weekly bazar is held on Mondays, cotton, *tur* and oranges being the chief articles of trade. There is a saw mill and a brick and tile manufacturing factory. A dam has been constructed across the river Pāk. It was completed in 1953 and irrigates about 283.500 hectares (700 acres) of land. The village has four temples, very old but not particularly notable for size or workmanship and a *dargāh* known as Trak Sāhib *dargāh*. Before British rule Hivarkheḍ was the scene of a hookswinging festival in honour of the deity Meghnāth. Meghnathis, that is men whose prayers had been answered by the God, would fix themselves to the hook and turn eight times, afterwards making an offering of money according to their means.

Objects. *Mahādev Temple.*

Of the temples, that of Mahādeva is the chief object of interest at Hivarkheḍ. It is situated on the bank of the river Pāk, flowing through the village. and is reported to be of considerable antiquity. There is an enclosure around entered by an arched gateway on which is the *Nagārkhānā*. Inside to the west, there is a spacious chamber containing idols of Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa, Sītā, Hanumān, Dattātraya and a *Śiva Liṅga*. In the centre of the enclosed courtyard there is *a Tulśivṛndāvana* which also contains idols of many deities. To the left of the visitor is the main temple with a spacious *sabhāmaṇḍap* containing yet another *Tulśivṛndāvana* with two graceful *Nandī* images of white marble of fine workmanship. In addition to the *Liṅga* whose lower part is of black stone and the upper part of whitish flint stone, the vestibule contains idols of Nāgoba (Snake), Annapūrṇā and Gaṇapati. It has a tall *śikhar* with designs of niches. Celebrations are held at the time of *Rāma Navmī, Gaṇeśotsava, and Kārtika Śuddha Paurṇimā.*

Tomb of Trak Sāheb.

The tomb is about 0.80 km. (four furlongs) to the north of the village. In days gone by, Hivarkheḍ was the headquarters of a *Naib* and a *Rīsālā* of the *Nizām's* cavalry was stationed here and the Turk or Trak Sāhib was reported to be an officer in the Nizām's army. However the cross on its top indicates it to be the grave of some early European adventurer.

KAUNDINYAPUR.

Kauṇḍinyapūr, in Cāndūr tahsil with 593 inhabitants and 118 houses as per the Census of 1961 is situated on either side of the river Wardhā. On a raised natural mound to the west of the river on a stone platform of an old Shaivite temple are placed a half-broken torso (of four headed figure) of Brahmā with a long conical beard carved in black basalt and a small torso of Viṣṇu placed on its side. Kauṇḍinyapūr is supposed to be the old capital of Vidarbha kings but beyond these fragmentary images and the remains of the original stone steps of the river ghāṭ hardly

anything is left of the old capital. However, on another mound known as Bhīm *Ṭekḍī*, situated to the south of the village the local inhabitants locate the site of the palace of *Rājā* Bhīṣmaka, the father of Rukmiṇī. At present a new temple dedicated to Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī stands on the mound. It is said that this village was the Rājā's capital and his city Deulvāḍā lies buried underneath. Fragments of large sized bricks similar to those found at Mansar and pot-sherds of pre-historic origin are found scattered all over the mound. A dozen beads of carnelian and crystal typical of the Āndhra Sātavāhana technique were found during the excavations of 1959-60. These were reported to be found while digging the foundation of the recent temple. Some 91·44 metres (100 yards) north of the temple on the same mound is an untouched old habitation site. An annual fair is held in honour of Viṭṭhal on *Kārtika Paurṇimā* (November) and is said to be attended by about ten thousand persons. In olden days the gathering used to be near about 50,000. There is also an ancient temple of Mahādeva.

KHOLAPUR.

Kholāpūr with 1,249 houses and a population of 6,397 lies 29 km. (eighteen miles) to the west of Amrāvatī on the borders of the tahsil of that name, part of its land lying across the Pūrṇā in Daryāpūr. There are two Middle Schools, two Primary Schools, a High School and two libraries. Of the middle and primary schools one each has Urdu and Marāṭhī as the media of instruction. A Leather Tanning Institute has also been established. The village besides the educational institutions mentioned above has a police station, a sub-post office and a civil as well as a veterinary dispensary. Its silk weavers have almost disappeared, but a large number of Sāḷīs still produce cotton saris and *coḷīs*, and some Mahārs weave woollen blankets. This trade however is also languishing. The bazar is held on Wednesdays and Saturdays. Two fairs are held annually. The first one, which is called *Koṭhicī yatrā*, is held on the previous day of the *Poḷā* festival and the other is held on *Mahāśivrātra* day in honour of Koṭeśvar Mahādeva and is attended by over 3,000 persons. There are temples dedicated to Koṭeśvara, Kholeśvara, Kaleśvara and Asara Goddess. The temple of Koṭesvara Mahādeva is built in the Hemāḍpanti style, a mention of which is to be found in *Pāvoṣṇī Māhātmya* of Vyāsa. The first two of these temples are said to date back to the period of the Yādavas. The temple of the Goddess is built in the bed of the river Pūrṇā while the other three are on its bank or nearabout. The place was visited by Cakradhara Svāmī the founder of the Mahānubhāva sect. The same has been commemorated. There are the *samādhis* of Rājā Dundubhī, and a certain ascetic called Pañcī Mahārāj. A *maṭh* in honour of Brahmānanda Svāmī has been built here. Formerly Kholapūr was a place of much importance. In 1809 Viṭṭhal Bhāgdev, Subhedār of Ellicpūr, levied a contribution of one lakh on the inhabitants who refused to pay. The Subhedār accordingly besieged the town which was then protected by walls for two months, upon which the inhabitants gave in. The village

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was looted by the troops, and has never recovered its former prosperity. Its rapid decadence may also be attributed to the annual fights between the Musalmāns and the Rājputs, when the victorious party always took occasion to loot at least a part of the village. Kholāpūr is one of the famous three *paraganas* of the Moghal times, the other two being Bāḷāpūr and Acalpūr. The village formerly consisted of 52 purās or parts, each provided with a tank or a well. If excavations are carried out old bricks are found. During excavations which were undertaken here a tank and well-built wells were discovered. Today the village is no longer of any consequence.

KONDESHVAR. Objects. *Koṇḍeśvar Temple.*

Koṇḍeśvar: an antique black stone temple of Koṇḍeśvar Mahādev, is situated in the village of the same name at the base of a hillock about 5 km. (three miles) distant from Baḍnerā and 3 km. (two miles) from Añjangāṅv Bārī. There is a *samādhī* of a certain saint by name Khāṭeśvar Bāvā. The construction of the Koṇḍeśvar temple is in Hemāḍpantī style and though much of it is in a dilapidated condition now, it must have been a fine structure at one time. Its former stone dome has been replaced with one of white *cunam*. In the inner shrine a Śiva *Liṅga* has been placed, the original having been destroyed when the place was under Moghal occupation. In the *maṇḍap* there is a finely carved statue of *Nandi*. Outside the temple are carved in relief elegant figures of elephants with their trunks entangled in one anothers. The figures represent one of the finest specimens of art. Around the temple there is a compound wall about 15 metres (50 feet) in height. There are also two small shrines dedicated to Mārutī and 'Satī' and a *samādhī* of Bholāgīr Mahārāj. Corridors have been built to accommodate the pilgrims. On every Monday of the month of *Śrāvaṇ* many persons even from Amrāvatī visit the temple to evoke the blessings of the deity. At the time of *Mahāśivratra* a fair attended by over 10,000 persons, coming from far and near, is held in honour of the god. The temple is maintained from the income of 6.070 hectares (fifteen acres) of land attached to it.

Samādhī of Khāṭeśva-Bāvā.

The *samādhī* of Khāṭeśvar Bāvā, who lived some 60 years ago, though not very important deserves a passing reference. The Bāva is remembered by the people of this village for his selfless service for them and especially the old and the disabled cattle. He used to keep such cattle and feed them; hence whenever he moved through the village people willingly gave fodder. He came to be so called because such cattle as he fed were known as *khāṭi* or useless for service. His original *samādhī* is in the village Jodmohā in Yavatmāḷ district. On top of this *samādhī* there is a marble image of Khāṭeśvar Bāvā. There is a well and a cattle shed also.

KURHA.

Kurhā, with 1,043 houses, is a village in Cāndūr tahsil having a population of 5,809 souls in 1961. It has a police station, a post-office, office of the Revenue Inspector, a combined Marāṭhī and Urdu school, a high school named as Aśoka High School and a dispensary maintained by the Zillā Pariṣad. There are a mosque

KURHA.

and a water tank which goes dry in summer and hence is hardly of any use. The place is situated half way between Cāndūr and Tivasā on the road connecting these places which was built in the famine of 1900. Two more roads connecting the village with Dhāmaṇgāṅv and Kauṇḍiṇyapūr have been recently constructed. The famous dacoits Nandu Rajput and Pāṇḍu Pāṭil of Ṭembhurṇī were surrounded here in a temple by the Nizām's troops in 1843, but after a three days' fight succeeded in cutting their way out.

LASUR.

Lasur (pop. 681) is a small village in Daryāpūr tahsil having an old temple of Mahādeva, *Hemāḍpantī* in style. The stones of the temple are carved with figures of gods and demigods: but the building is rapidly falling into decay.

MANGRUL DASTAGIR.

Maṅgruḷ Dastagīr is a village in Cāndūr tahsil with 934 houses and 4,432 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census. It is not an integrated village but consists of eight "Munds" lying close together. The second name Dastagīr is given to distinguish it from several other towns and villages in Berār bearing the name Maṅgruḷ and is derived from a Musalmān *fakir* who lived here. Maṅgruḷ is 4.83 km. (three miles) away from Talni railway station and has a small trade in gram and cotton to the Dattāpūr Dhāmaṇgāṅv market. A considerable weekly bazar is held on Wednesdays. There is a *sevā sahakāri* society, a police station, a post-office, a dispensary, a high school, a girls' school, a middle school, and Marāṭhī and Urdu primary schools. It has an old and ruined temple of Mārutī as also the temples of Balājī, Gaṇapati and Dattātraya. At Raina close by are a small tank and a big temple of Rāma which is said to date back to the times of the Bhosles and built by one Vāsudev Pant Deśpāṇḍe, in the service of Bhosle Rājās. The temple of Rama is the oldest in the village. But of all the Hindu places of worship the shrine of Dattātraya, though of recent construction, is invested with utmost sanctity. It is in size bigger than the rest of the temples and was built sixty years ago by one Govindrāv Pākoḷe at a cost of one lakh of rupees The stone used for the construction is soft yellowish and was brought from Rājputānā. Some fine carvings are to be seen on many of the stones used for construction. The sculpture on the *śikhar* is noteworthy. A compound wall encloses the temple which has a small but neatly maintained courtyard. A handsome white marble idol of Dattātraya is placed inside the *gābhārā*. The outer hall or *sabhāmaṇḍap* is approximately 8 x 5 metres (26' x 18') and is paved with highly polished slabs of stone. About 163 hectares (400 acres) of land is owned by the temple. There is a trust to look after its management and maintenance. *Datta Jayanti* is celebrated annually with all the traditional eclat and lasts for five days.

MARKI.

Markī is a village in Amrāvatī tahsil about 24 km. (18 miles) distant from Amrāvatī on Amrāvatī Cikhaldarā road. As per the 1961 Census its population was 824. Though small it is remarkable for the fair which is held annually in honour of Mārkināth. Mārkināth, who lived during the time of Śivājī the Great, was

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Places.

MARKI.

originally a resident of Daryāpūr, coming from a respectable family whose hereditary business was money lending. An overwhelming change took place in his being when one day a certain lady by name Sakarbāī, whom he had loaned money, remarked when he pressed her to return it back, that he would have attained *Mokṣa* if he had loved God more than wealth. The remark deeply affected Mārkināth's mind and on that very day he renounced the worldly joys, his business, family, everything and began to wander from place to place singing aloud songs in praise of God. Finally he came to the village Mārkī where he breathed his last. It is probable that the village came to be known as Mārkī after this man. At the entrance of the village there is a small pedestal-like construction of bricks, now practically in ruins which marks the place where he was cremated. It has a hollow on one side wherein were idols of Viṭṭhal and Rakhumāī. Those have now been deposited in the shrine of Markināth which is at a distance of about 91 metres (300 feet) from this spot. It is reported that Mārkināth was cremated contrary to his dying wish and hence by some divine power he rose alive from the ashes and took *samādhī* where the shrine is seen now. The area covered by the *mandir* measures about 60 x 45 metres (200' x 150') and it wears the appearance of an old dilapidated *vāḍā* or palace. On crossing the entrance gate the visitor comes across two raised platforms or *oṭās*. There is also a courtyard about 1.858 sq. metres (twenty feet square). In the centre there is a *Tulśivṛndavan* with an idol of Hanumān nearby. At one end of the compound, to the right hand side of the visitor, is the shrine containing the *samādhī*. The *samādhī* is in complete darkness and a *Nandādīp* is kept burning night and day. Upon this are placed four big conch shells and below it the foot-wear or *pādukās* of Śrī Markināth. The idols of Viṭṭhal Rakhumāī referred to above are also kept here. In honour of Mārkināth a fair lasting for three days is held in the bright half of *Caitra*. In fact the fair used to be largely attended by people coming from all over the Berār (Varhāḍ) region. It was considered to be the Paṇḍharpūr of Berār. Goods worth Rs 30,000 were sold. Now the importance of the fair is gradually on the decline and is attended hardly by 5,000 persons. But yet the great attraction of the fair is religious and consists of a *homa* or sacrifice in which hundreds of coconuts are offered. *Bhajan meḷās* or parties of ten or fifteen persons sing religious songs to the accompaniment of tomtoms, cymbals and other music. The village also contains *samādhīs* of Rudranāth and Beṇḍoji Mahārāj.

Objects.

Mārkināth Temple.

Samādhī of Rudranāth.

Rudranāth was the *Guru* of Mārkināth and his *samādhī* is 0.20 km. (a furlong) away from the village. There is a *maṭh*, now in bad repairs, where Rudranāth used to have discourses on religion for his followers. On *Mārgaśirṣa Paurṇimā* a *homa* or sacrifice is performed and is, attended only by the village folk.

Beṇḍoji Mahārāj Samādhī.

Beṇḍojī Mahārāj, yet another devotee of Mārkināth was originally residing in the Rudranāth *maṭh*. His *samādhī* is situated at a distance of 0.40 km. (two furlongs) from the village

and the place is termed as Gopālpurī *Saṁsthān*. The *samādhī* is built on a square plinth admeasuring 0.929 m.[2] (ten feet square) and it stands in the centre of a piece of land admeasuring 0.810 hectares (2 acres) belonging to the *Saṁsthān*. The Mahārāj took *samādhī* in 1918. On *Caitra Vadya Caturthī* immediately on the second day following the fair of Mārkināth, a fair in honour of Beṇḍojī Mahārāj is held and is attended by a large number of people.

MELGHAT TAHSIL.

Melghāṭ Tahsil, the northern tahsil of Berār formerly part of the Acalpūr district, but since August, 1905 incorporated in the Amrāvatī district, lying between 20° 10′ and 21° 47′ N and 76° 38′ and 77° 40′ E has an area of 4004.1 km.[2] (1,546 sq. miles). Prior to the transfer of the Ambabarva State forest to the Buldhāṇā district the area of the tahsil was 4224.2914 km[2]. (1,631 square miles). The tahsil is also sometimes called Gāṅgra and consists of that portion of the Sātpuḍā range situated between the Khāmlā plateau on the east and Jaitgaḍ on the west with the rich valleys and low plateaus lying between the mountains. On the north it is bounded by Harsud and Bhaisdehi tahsils of Betul district, and the Tāpī river dividing it from Nimār district, on the south by the tahsils of Jalgāṅv (Buldhāṇā district) and Akoṭ (Akolā district) and Daryāpūr and Acalpūr tahsils, (of Amrāvatī district) on the east again by Acalpūr tahsil (Amrāvatī district) and Bhaisdehi tahsil (of Betul district) and on the west by Burhānpūr tahsil of Nimar district. Melghāṭ tahsil contains the richest of the forest reserves in the whole of the district. Fine quality timber is produced in the forests of this tahsil which has great demand outside and is chiefly exported to Bombay. Forest range offices have been established at suitable places and efforts to extend the forest area and grow quality timber trees are constantly made. The country is extremely rugged and broken into a succession of hills and valleys. In the more advanced portions, such as the neighbourhood of Dhārṇī. and Bairāgaḍ when the *rabi* crops are on the ground, the green fields afford a pleasing and restful view to the eye. But the typical Melghāṭ country consists of barren hills. scrub jungle and stony ground, and is of a most dreary and desolate description. The villages are collections of hovels without any shade and one can well understand the feelings of the subordinate officials who regard the tract as *kālāpāṇī* and whose health requires frequent visits to the Berār plains. There are no navigable rivers in the tahsil unless the Tāpī which forms a portion of the boundary may be considered such during the rainy season. The streams that drain the northern face of the range and fall into the Tāpī are the following:— The Sipnā and the Kundu both have their rise close to the village of Khāmlā in Betul district, the former running south of Makhlā plateau for 13 to 16 km. (8 to 10 miles), takes a northwesterly course and passing through the villages of Harisāl and Dupi unites with the Tāpī to the north-east of Āmner; the latter passing through the Katkumb and Savligarh falls into the Tāpī. The Gargā rises under Vairāṭ, the highest summit of the Gāvilgaḍ hills and running nearly north-west throughout its course

CHAPTER 19. Places. MELGHAT TAHSIL.

unites with the Tāpī immediately under the southern face of the fort of Āmner. The Kaprā, the Majri and the Devan are the other minor streams which fall into the Tāpī.

The climate of the tract has a very evil reputation, corresponding in this respect to the Dindorī tahsil of Maṇḍla and the Baihar tahsil of Bālāghāṭ. A severe type of malaria prevails at the end of the rainy season and the beginning of the cold weather. But with the successful implementation of the malaria eradication programme the conditions have considerably improved. In the hot weather the heat in the valleys is intense and the absence of shade, the difficulties of water supply, and the general lack of all the comforts of the plains, make the tract one of the most unpleasant for touring purposes.

Population.

The Melghāṭ tahsil is the largest of all the tahsils of the district in point of size but the smallest of all in point of population. Its population in 1961 was only 72,522.

Agricuture.

Regarding agriculture, soil, area under different crops and the revenue system that existed then, the old Gazetteer of 1911 gives the following account. "In the valleys of the Tāpī, Sātpurā and Gaṅgrā, especially in the neighbourhood of Dhārṇī or Bairāgaḍ, rich stretches of black soil are to be found, and a visitor to either of these places who sees spread out before him an unbroken expanse of wheat and gram, is liable to get a very misleading impression of the tract as a whole. The remainder of the tract is of a very hilly and rugged description, though here and there pockets of black soil are met with in the valleys. The soils have never been thoroughly classified but in 1897 Colonel Garrett's party classified a few typical fields in each village and worked out the average value of the soil for each village. The soil as a whole is of the poorest description. Of the 338 villages 3 were valued at 12 annas per acre, 11 villages at 11 annas, 117 at values varying from 6 annas to 9 annas, and the remaining 193 fell below 6 annas. In 1860-61 Mr. J. Mulheran in his statistical report on Gāṅgrā stated that rice and gram are the principal productions of Gāṅgrā and are grown expressly for export. The former is much prized by the people of Berār and Burhāṇpūr, particularly the finest kind which resembles that grown in the Pilibhit district. Gram is exported principally to Burhāṇpūr though large quantities are brought into Berār through all the passes by the people from Jaḷgāṅv, Hivarkheḍ, Añjangāṅv, Acalpūr and other places south of the range. Jovar grows very luxuriantly near Kalambhar and other places in the Sipnā and Gargā valleys and also upon some of the lower plateaus. Bardi, rala, margi, kodon kutki and one or two other hill grains are grown upon more elevated slopes and plateaus and are used chiefly if not entirely by the Goṇḍs. Potatoes are not cultivated by the Korkus of Gāṅgrā although that vegetable would pay them better than any other. That sold at Cikhaldarā and Acalpūr is grown by the Gavḷis residing at Cikhaldarā, Śāpūr, Mota and Bori and by the Hindu inhabitants of the fort of Gāvilgad. At this time the area under cultivation

obtained by outlining and subsequent computation was 39,398.400 hectares (97,280 acres). In 1864 Captain Pearson refers to the rich soil and good cultivation of the plains near the Tāpī and the Gāṅgrā, and the Gazetteer of 1870 states that thirteen different kinds of grain were produced in the Melghāṭ of which the most valuable were the finest wheat and rice, grown in large quantities. In 1906-07 the returns showed that out of a total of 672,667.280 hectares (1,663,376 acres) occupied for cultivation 57,645.270 hectares (142,334 acres) were under crop. Of this cotton occupied 17,158.760 hectares (42,392 acres), jovar 5,618.345 hectares (23,749 acres) and wheat 3,342.870 hectares (8,254 acres). The area under rice was only 1,318.680 hectares (3,256 acres) and the total irrigated area was 20.23 hectares (50 acres). These figures do not include those for *inām*, leased and *jāgīr* villages, and it is to be noted that they are not the result of accurate measurement but are derived from the statistical calculation of 16 acres per plough."

Land Revenue.

"The tract has a curious and interesting revenue history. Cultivation is permitted by the Tahsildar on a yearly tenure subject to certain conditions and land revenue is assessed on the yoke of oxen, the rates differing in different villages For statistical purposes only, the area cultivated by one plough is taken to be 16 acres and to obtain the total acreage under cultivation, the number of ploughs should be multiplied by 16. The yoke rate system is a cheap and simple method of colonizing a backward tract but it is no longer suitable for a considerable portion of the Melghāṭ and the introduction of a regular and scientific assessment is urgently required. Proposals for settlement have been made at various times but have always proved abortive. A special enquiry was made in 1907 and orders regarding the settlement of the most advanced portion of the tract have recently been issued. In 1907-08 the land-revenue demand including cesses was Rs. 57,227".

It goes without saying that the complicated systems of land records, vital statistics and the like in force in the plains do not exist in the Melghāṭ. There are Circle Inspectors and *paṭvāris* in existence. and each with a circle of villages, carries on such land record work as is necessary. The tahsil forms part of the Acalpūr police circle and contains two police stations at Cikhaldarā and Dhārṇī, respectively. There are also two road posts at Bairagaḍ and Ghāṭaṅg. A great change has taken place since 1870 when Sir A. Lyall wrote that none of the passes from the Melghāṭ were practicable for wheeled traffic and that there were no made roads in the Melghāṭ. The opening out of the Melghāṭ was begun in 1874 and has continued ever since with the result that especially in the reserves a most excellent system of communications has been established. The P.W.D. maintains roads from Ghāṭaṅg to Cikhaldarā, the Gugumal forest road (Akoṭ to Selu) and the Semaḍoh to Dhārṇī road. These are first class roads with *muram*, partially bridged and drained. There are a good many roads maintained by the Forest department. Perhaps the most important of these is the road running from Bairagaḍ

Communications.

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MELGHAT TAHSIL.

to Jhiri, 90·16 km. (56 miles) in length. It is the principal line of export for the western portion of the Melghāṭ, its claims for improvement deserve consideration. With a few exceptions every village in the Melghāṭ is in cart communication with some main road; the tracts are rough and stony but they serve their purpose sufficiently well. The Khāṇḍvā-Akolā railway line passes through the south-western corner of the tahsil.

MOZRI.

Mozrī is largely an agricultural village in Cāndūr tahsil with 830 houses and a population of 4,624 according to the Census of 1961. It has a post office, a primary school and a middle school. The weekly bazar is held on Saturdays. At Mozrī there is an *āśram* called Gurukuñj which conducts a dispensary. It is often called after the name of the *āśram*.

MOZRI.

Mozrī or as the Berār Gazetteer of 1870 has it Mañjīrā, is a small village in Melghāṭ tahsil reached from Cikhaldarā by a precipitous track through the fort. It has two small artificial caves, cut in the natural rock. One of these is completely choked with rubbish so that it is very difficult to discover, but the other which is about 2·438 metres (8 feet) high and 1.486 sq. metres (16 feet square) contains in its inner part a shrine of Mahādeva. This is divided from the outer portion by a small mud wall. Beside is a spring of water, dry during the greater part of the year and a cut basin. The whole is most rudely cut in the rock without any trace of carving, and is probably the work of bygone hermit ascetics, though all traditions of its origin have long since been lost. Of late the village residents have sunk a well which provides them with water all the year round.

MORSHI TAHSIL.

Morśī Tahsil, a tahsil of the Amrāvatī district, lying between 21°12′ and 21°34′ N. 77°48′ and 78°29′ E. has an area of 1613.57 km² (623 square miles). It contains 332 villages and towns. Of these the entire village of Ambhorī is under forests. The tahsil is a prolongation of the rich alluvial plain which occupies the valley of Berār and its capabilities for the production of cotton and cereals are considerable, although a slight falling-off is perceptible from the agricultural point of view both in the formation of surface and the nature of the soils. The former is more undulating than that presented by the Acalpūr plain and the latter are more shallow and more varied in the quality than the soils of Acalpūr. The tahsil lies in the fertile valley of the Wardhā river which bounds it on the east and south-east, but a narrow strip along its north western border occupies the lower slopes of the Sātpuḍā hills. The Amrāvatī and Acalpūr tahsils bound it on the south and west, respectively. On the north lies the Betul district; to the east and south the Chindvāḍā, Nāgpūr and Wardhā districts. The Wardhā river was previously taken as the boundary between the Madhya Pradeś and Berār. It is to this fact that the tahsil owes its peculiar shape, the river approaching so near to the hills in the vicinity of Morśī as almost to cut it into two portions. Some parts of the country are fairly well wooded, and the only considerable forest reserves of the Amrāvatī Division (if we except

Cirodī), are in the eastern half of this tahsil. The western part is bare and very dreary, and in respect of scenery the tahsil compares unfavourably with Acalpūr. The climate is good, although of course exceedingly hot in the hot weather. In the eastern portion of the tahsil water is near the surface and can be raised without much difficulty for purposes of irrigation. Well irrigation is becoming popular with the villagers and at present (1963), 152 electric pumping sets have been installed on the wells to irrigate the land. In addition dams have been built across Pāk *nallā*, Dabheri and Bheṇḍī tanks and thus the land is fed with water which has gone a long way towards bringing hitherto dry land under irrigation. The gross irrigated area at the end of 1962-63 stood at approximately 4021.650 hectares (9930 acres). Of the river system which drains the tahsil the Wardhā is the main channel, and it supplies water to villagers along the border for a distance of more than 80 km. (50 miles). Among rivers of less importance are the Māṇḍū in the western portion of the tashil and the Cūḍāmaṇī, Kuṁbhī and Bel in the east. These rivers though of no great length contain considerable supplies of water for the greater part of the year. Streams in the neighbourhood of the hills hardly worthy of the name of rivers are much used for irrigation, the rapid fall of the beds of these streams affording facilities for drawing off the water on erection of temporary dams. In no other part of Berar is the water from streams utilized as it is in Morśī and the supply here is in some cases perennial, admitting of the cultivation of sugarcane and turmeric without the assistance of well water. It is probable that there is room for a very large extension of wet cultivation in this tahsil. The possibility of artesian wells has also been mooted.

Population.

The total population of the tahsil in 1961 was 196,705 as against 160,863 in 1951. As in other tahsils of Amrāvatī and throughout the whole of Vidarbha region the population is mainly agricultural. The tahsil contains the three towns of Morśī, Warūḍ and Śendurjanā all having separate municipalities and 12 villages whose population exceeds 2,000.

Cotton, jovar, wheat and *tur* are the principal crops of the tahsil. The area under orange and chilli plantation and groundnut cultivation is rapidly increasing and in years to come will have to be ranked among the chief crops of the tahsil. The area under various crops in 1962-63 was as below: Cotton 60,718·410 hectares (149,922 acres); jovar 35,061.255 hectares (86,571 acres); wheat 3,125.385 hectares (7,717 acres), groundnut 2,589.975 hectares (6,395 acres) and orange 1,716 hectares (4,238 acres). Rice is also cultivated with success but the area under paddy fields is negligible so as to warrant any mention. Turmeric thrives well particularly in irrigated land. The irrigation by channels from streams is of some importance in Morśī. The construction of temporary dams across the streams at the close of the monsoon rains is easily and cheaply effected and in some cases a perennial supply of water can be turned on to the garden lands and valuable crops can be grown at a minimum of labour and cost.

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MORSHI TAHSIL.

Revenue.

In 1962-63, the demand of land revenue excluding cesses amounted to Rs. 525,388. For purposes of land records the tahsil has been divided into four Revenue Inspectors' Circles with headquarters at Morśī, Rithpūr, Jarūḍ and Puslā.

Miscellaneous.

The tahsil is now divided into two Development Blocks viz., Warūḍ and Morśī each having the office of the Pancāyat Samiti. There are in the tahsil four police stations each under a Sub-Inspector at Morśī, Sirkhed, Warūḍ, and Benodā. In respect of communications the tahsil is extremely well served, the Amrāvatī-Wardhā road running along its whole length.

MORSHI TOWN.

Morśī is the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name and contains 2.535 houses with 11,946 inhabitants according to the Census of 1961. It lies 61 km. (34 miles) north-east of Amrāvatī, the headquarters of the district, and is connected with it by a first class road, which passing through Morśī runs to Warūḍ from whence a branch of it crosses over to the Madhya Pradesh border to Multāī and another goes on to the river Wardhā at the extreme east of the tahsil. It is also connected with Acalpūr by a fairly good road which would soon be turned into a first class road as the traffic on that route is rapidly on the increase. The public buildings besides the tahsil office include office of the Pancāyat Samiti, a civil court, a post and telegraph office, a veterinary dispensary, a primary health centre, a police station with residential quarters for the police, etc. Morśī has two primary schools, one each conducted by the Government and a private body, Marāṭhī schools for boys and girls conducted by the municipality, and an Urdu primary school. Morśī has a large trade in cotton and oranges. A big cotton market has been set up here and there are a few cotton pressing factories. On Tuesdays the weekly bazar is held. A good many handlooms are worked here which manufacture *tadhāos*, blankets and coarse *dhotis*. Of late the local amateurs have established a club which is the only one of its kind in the town.

Objects.

The town among other things contains the *Śamādhi* of Rāmjī Mahārāj and a temple known as *Udāsī Mahārājānce Devālaya*.

Samādhī of Rāmjī Mahārāj

The *samādhi* of *Rāmjī Mahārāj*, a saintly man of Morśī was built some fifty years ago and is located along the Warūḍ-Amrāvatī road passing through Morśī. It is reported that he observed complete silence and always kept himself busy in the worship of God. He was supposed to possess divine power. On many occasions he displayed the extraordinary power he had and was therefore highly respected by the people. His *samādhi* is visited by people coming even from the surrounding villages on the day of the fair. The *samādhi* is built in cement concrete on which are placed the *pādukās* of the saint. At a little distance to the west there is the *samādhi* of one Gaṅgārām *Mahārāj* while to the east that of Gaṇpatrāv Pāṭīl, an ardent disciple of Rāmjī *Mahārāj*. A fair, lasting for seven days, is held on the death anniversary of Rāmjī *Mahārāj* which falls on

Āṣāḍh Vadya Ṣaṣṭhī. A congregation of over 5,000 people gathers on the occasion. On the last day of the fair a palanquin procession is taken out.

Objects. *Udāsi Mahārājānce Devālaya.*

This is a combined temple of Hanumān and Gaṇapati, at a short distance from the bus stand, belonging to *Udāsī* sect. The area occupied by the temple is 22 x 12 metres (75' x 40'). The temple edifice is built in stone and bricks and contains idols of Hanumān, Gaṇapati and a Śiva *Liṅga.* Both the *Gaṇeśa Caturthī* festival as well as *Hanumān Jayantī* are celebrated with great pomp when about eight thousand people assemble. The temple was constructed in 1937 by Bābā Santdāsjī.

Besides the temple noted above there are in the town temples dedicated to Rāma, Mahādeva and Saṅgameśvar. The last of these is situated at the confluence of the rivers Nala and Damayantī where in the month of *Śrāvaṇ*, a festival is celebrated.

Municipality.

Morśi Municipality was established in 1937 Its jurisdiction extends over an area of 14.46 km² (5.97 sq. miles). The president is the executive head and is elected by the councillors.

Finance.

In 1962-63, municipal income amounted to Rs. 106,297.72. It comprised municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 48,176.78; realization under special acts Rs. 261.10; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 11,151.56; grants and contributions, Rs. 39,565.03; miscellaneous, Rs. 195.86 and extraordinary and debt heads Rs. 6,947.07. During the same year expenditure amounted to Rs. 99,812.25. It comprised general administration and collection charges, Rs. 10,801.82; public safety, Rs 11,421.45; public health and convenience, Rs. 39,838.97; public instruction, Rs. 29,392.71, miscellaneous, Rs. 1,918.20 and extraordinary and debt heads, Rs. 6,439.20.

Health and Sanitation.

There are civil and veterinary dispensaries a mention of which has appeared in the foregoing pages. The town has *pucca* stone-lined and *kutcha* drains. Wells, private as well as public form the main source of water-supply.

Education.

The responsibility of compulsory primary education, introduced in the town vests in the municipality.

Roads.

The total length of the roads within the municipal limits is 16.4 km. of which only a stretch of 8.65 km. is metalled.

Cremation and Burial Places.

Cremation and burial places are maintained and used by the respective communities.

MOTHA.

Mothā : a village in Melghāṭ tahsil situated at the point where Dhāmaṇgāṅv-Mothā road to Cikhaldarā reaches the top of the hills. 'Mackenzie's Ride' from Cikhaldarā ends here. The 1961 Census gives the number of houses as 90 with 481 inhabitants. There are several families of Gavḷīs and a few of Korkus. The former own large herds of cattle. Gavḷīs are primarily occupied in rearing cattle.

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Places.

NANDGAON KHANDESHVAR.

Objects.

Tomb of Hāji Ghāzī Avaliyā.

Khaṇḍeśvara. Temple.

Nandgāṅv Khaṇḍeśvara, so called on account of the temple of Khaṇḍeśvara is a village in Amrāvatī tahsil lying along the Amrāvatī-Yavatmāḷ road, 51 km. (32 miles) distant from Amrāvatī and 25 km. (16 miles) from the Baḍnerā railway station. It was previously known as Nāndgāṅv Kāzī. The village has two primary schools, one Marāṭhı and the other Urdu, a high school, a post office, a sub-registry and a civil and a veterinary dispensary. There is a tomb of one Hāji Ghāzī Avaliyā and an old temple dedicated to Khaṇḍeśvara, Narsiṁha and Śaṅkar Pārvatī, situated on the knoll of a hill on the outskirts of the village. The temple is said to be Hemāḍpanti but its upper half is built in brick and mortar. It is believed that the temple is haunted. A 1.82 metres (six feet) high compound wall, with an entrance on the western side, encircles the shrine. On either side of this entrance there are two spacious chambers. Inside, one comes across three *samādhis* with a small Mārutī shrine in the background. Still further behind are seen five *Liṅgas,* popularly known as *Pañca Mahādeva.* The temple *maṇḍap* has two six-pillared rows on which are carved in relief images of horses, that of Kṛṣṇa and many women devotees which in particular are extremely attractive. The pillars also bear unique designs and patterns. Many of the designs have been disfigured and some totally wiped off. In the centre of the *maṇḍap* there is an 0.743 sq. metres (eight feet square) platform below which a deep dark cellar was noticed when one of its stones was removed.

The temple has three *gābhārās*. In the one to the right of the visitor, the chief deity after whom the shrine is called is represented with a *Liṅga* symbol. It is donned with a facial plaque and a large hooded cobra, both of glittering and polished brass. In the background there is an idol of Gajānan while in the front there is an image of *Nandī*. Exactly on the opposite side, or to the left of the visitor, in a similar chamber is the idol of Narsiṁha depicted as thrusting claws in the belly of Hiraṇya Kaśipu, the father of Pralhāda. Nearby there are tiny idols of Pralhāda and his mother. In the third *gābhārā* are the images of Śaṅkara and Pārvatī. Pārvatī is depicted as sitting on Śaṅkara's left lap. All the three *gābhārās* are crowned with handsome *śikhars*. In 1959 a lightning struck the front part of the *maṇḍap* thereby demolishing a small portion of it. It was however, subsequently repaired. The temple has some 4.86 hectares (12 acres) of land allotted to it. *Mahāśivrātra* is celebrated when people gather in a considerable number. In the month of *Śrāvaṇ,* the Saturday weekly market, which is otherwise held in the village itself, is held around the temple premises. On the southern side of the temple, but outside the enclosure, is a *dīpmāḷ* about 15.24 metres (50 feet) high, with a narrow passage inside.

Other objects.

The village has also a Jain *Mandīr* and two *maṭhs* viz., *Aṁbābāīcā Maṭh* and *Lahān Maṭh*. The former is in memory of Aṁbābāī, a pious lady who died some 250 years ago in the

NANDGAON KHANDESHVAR. Objects.

village. A *pirzādā* known as *Māti Mile Miyā* also lived here. The words mean "mixed with dirt". The name was doubtless descriptive of the *pir*, though one may suppose it was assumed with some suggestion of "ashes to ashes and dust to dust". A tomb has been built over his remains and an *urus* is held annually which is largely attended. Nāndgāṅv is situated in the rocky portion of the Cāndūr tahsil and in times of scarcity is one of the places to be attended to first.

NANDGAON PETH.

Nāndgāṅv Peṭh a village in Amrāvatī tahsil is nearly 11 km. (7 miles) from Amrāvatī on the Morśī road, inhabited by a large number of Muhammedans. A bazar is held on every Tuesday, Friday and Sunday. Two Hindu temples, a *masjid* and a tomb of a Muhammedan saint are supported by service *ināms*. The temples, mosque and the tomb are still in tact. Recently the Zillā Pariṣad has established an allopathic dispensary.

NERPINGLAI.

Nerpiṅgḷāī in Morśī tahsil has a population of 7,354 according to the 1961 Census. The second name viz., Piṅgḷāī has been given to it in order to distinguish it from Ner Parsopant in Yavatmaḷ district and is perhaps taken from the temple of Piṅgḷāī Devī situated on a small hill-top on the borders of Ner and Sāwarkhed which is the only object of interest in the village.

Objects. *Temple of Pinglai Devi.*

Piṅgḷāī Devī temple is of great antiquity with a four-pillared *manḍap* having a spacious terrace above. The *gabhārā* contains an idol of the *Devī*, supposed to be *svayaṁbhū*, besmeared with red lead. In the *manḍap* there are a Śiva *Liṅga* and a *Nandī* image. The *Devī* is held in high reverence and two fairs, one on *Dasarā* and the other on *Caitrī Paurṇimā* are held in Her honour. The village also contains a *maṭh* of Gaṅgādhar Svāmī, *samādhi* of Gulābpurī Mahārāj and an old *gaḍhī*. To the east of the Piṅgḷāī Devī temple there is a fairly large *talāv*. It is the source of the river Peḍhī.

Math of Guru Gaṅgādhar Svāmī.

The late Gaṅgādhar Svāmī, a saint of the Liṅgāyats, built this *maṭh* at a cost of Rs. 20,000. It is named after its builder and contains his facial plaque. He was revered by many. A few of his disciples stay in the *maṭh*.

Samadhi of Gulābpurī Mahārāj.

Gulābpurī Mahārāj, who considered himself an incarnation of Śaṅkar, was originally from Uttar Pradesh but took his *samādhi* at Nerpiṅgḷāī. He was supposed to possess divine powers of instilling life in dead bodies. He never accepted personal worship in any form but yet was revered by people of various religious faiths. A fair, attended by over 9,000 persons, is held on *Phālguna Śuddha Dvādaśī*.

Gaḍhī.

The *gaḍhī* is to the north of the village and lies in a ruined state. There are a hundred inhabited houses inside it. It has three towers of which one at the entrance is bigger and is about 12.192 metres (40 feet) high.

PALASKHED.

Palaskhed is a large but unimportant village in Cāndūr tahsil situated beside the bank of the Khokad *nullā* which is the

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PALASKHED.

primary source of water-supply. A *bandhārā* has recently been constructed on it. It has 517 houses and 2,239 inhabitants as per the Census of 1961. The village site is on a higher level and the ground around is rocky. Palaskheḍ has a school, a *cāvḍī* and a mosque situated near the *nullā*.

PATHROT.

Pāthroṭ is a town in Acalpūr tahsil with 1,417 houses inhabited by 6,571 persons according to the 1961 Census. It is to the west of the tahsil headquarters and has an extensive garden cultivation. A considerable dry crop of chillis is also taken. From Paratvāḍā and Añjangāṅv Surjī it is 19.312 and 9.656 km. (12 and 6 miles) distant respectively and is connected by a good road. The weekly market is held on Fridays. It has a primary school, a post office and a police station under a Sub-Inspector.

RITHPUR.

Rithpūr or Ṛddhapūr is a large and populous village in Morśī tahsil with in 1961, 703 houses and 3,663 inhabitants. It lies 9.656 km. (6 miles) east of Cāndūr Bazār on the Acalpūr-Cāndūr-Morśī road. Being the headquarters of the Mahānubhāva sect, it is often called the Banāras of Mahānubhāva *Panthis*. It belonged to Salābat Khān having been given to him as *tankhājāgīr*, and was a place of much importance. Some 130 years ago it was surrounded by a stone wall, not a trace of which is left to-day, and contained about 2,000 houses and some 12,000 inhabitants. In the time of Nāmdār Khān, the notorious Rājā Bisn Cand was *Talukdar* here. He is remembered alike for his miserliness and oppression, and carried them to such an extreme that Rithpūr was completely deserted by the people. There are now numerous temples of Mahānubhāva *Panthis*, important of them being the

Objects.

Rāj *Maṭh*, Kṛṣṇa *Mandīr*, Datta *Mandīr* also known as Bhagatrāi *Mandir* and Gopīrāj *Mandīr*. The Hindus have a shrine dedicated to Rāma and the Muslims quite a few *dargāhs* of which those of Śālam Miyā and Mehbub Subhāni are of importance and a *masjid*, which is in the midst of the Mahānubhāva buildings.

Rāj Maṭh and Kṛṣṇa Temple.

Rāj *Maṭh* and Kṛṣṇa *Mandīr* are not two separate buildings but the latter is housed within Rāj *Maṭh* and are the most important places of worship of the Mahānubhāva sect for these are said to have been established by Cakradhara Svāmī, the founder of the sect. At a later date the old *maṭh* was rebuilt on a much larger scale at a total cost of Rs. 12,000. The shrine of Kṛṣṇa is entered through a richly decorated arch-shaped door. The idol of Kṛṣṇa, of black flint stone, is graceful and stands on a raised platform and nearby is marked a place where Cakradhara Svāmī used to sit to offer his prayers. Local tradition declares that at the back of the Rāj *Maṭh* in the compound, there were three more *maṭhs* viz., Tripuruṣ *Maṭh* (of Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Maheś), *Uñca Maṭh* and Narsiṁha *Maṭh* all of which were razed to the ground by Auraṅgzeb and a mosque established in its place which is still in a very good condition. The Mahānubhāvas could reconstruct only the first i.e., Rāj *Maṭh*. Ruins of the Uñca *Maṭh* could be seen even to-day. Annually two fairs are held one each on *Caitra Paurṇimā* and *Āṣāḍhī Paurṇimā*. Nearly 5,000 people gather on these occasions.

RITHPUR.

Objects.

Not far away from the Rāj *Maṭh* is the shrine of Gopīrāj with a spacious hall. It is entered through a richly carved door and contains an idol of Kṛṣṇa and a *Homakuṇḍa*. Within the premises of this *mandir* a library is located.

A well, known as Lālā's well provides excellent drinking water to about half the village populace. The neighbouring soil is rocky and poor. The weekly bazar is held on Tuesdays. There is a branch post-office, primary schools and a middle school. Now Ṛithpūr is also connected by a II class road with Tivasā, the length of which is about 37.014 km. (23 miles). River Peḍhī, flowing through this village, is considered as Kāśī by the Mahānubhāvas.

RINMOCHAN.

Ṛṇamocan is a village in Amrāvatī tahsil with 33 houses inhabited by 203 persons according to the 1961 Census. It is to the west of Amrāvatī and about 11 km. (seven miles) to the south of Kholāpūr. In A.D. 1840 it was granted as a *jāgir* along with Dhānorā in Daryāpūr tahsil for the service of *Muāzzin* at Kholāpūr for personal maintenance in heredity. The Pūrṇā flows eastwards through the village along which five *ghāṭs* have been constructed. The place is considered holy by the Hindus, being one of the sacred places on the Pūrṇā and boasts of an annual fair held on the fourth Sunday in the month of *Pauṣa* with an attendance of 20 thousand to 25 thousand. On the occasion many booths are erected and all sorts of agricultural implements and household utility articles are sold. The word *Ṛṇamocan* literally means release from debts and it is believed that all those who attend the fair and take a dip in the river attain this blissful state. There is a temple of Rāmeśvar and a *Śiva Liṅga* placed on a pedestal at the foot of a shady *pipal* tree. It is called Muhagleśvar and is held in high reverence.

SALBARDI.

Sālbarḍī according to the 1961 Census has a population of 129. It is an insignificant village about 8 km. (5 miles) north of Morśī on the border lying partly in the tahsil of that name and partly in the Betul district of Madhya Pradesh. It holds an important position in Hindu mythology. Legend connects it with the abode of Sītā when she was deserted by Rāma, and to have given birth to her two sons Lava and Kuśa. They were taught by the Sage Vālmikī after he had been reformed by Nārada, who released him from his entombment at Sālbarḍī. The twins are said to have caught the horse Śyāmakarṇa let loose by Rāma when he performed the *Aśvamedha Yajña*. A battle was fought between Rāma and his three brothers, and his sons Lava and Kuśa. The former were defeated and left unconscious on the battle-field and being told of these happenings, Sītā arrived on the scene and recognised, Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa, Bharat and Śatrughna. A great union took place and Rāma acknowledged Sītā and his two sons Lava and Kuśa and were taken by him to Ayodhyā. Salbarḍī is situated on the Māḍu river, and is celebrated on account of two springs, one very cold and the other hot or decidedly tepid. The springs flow into a small stone cistern which was formerly divided into

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SALBARDI.

compartments for the hot and cold water. The water was recently analysed, and reported as containing sulphates and phosphates in small quantities, unfit for drinking but probably useful as a wash for skin diseases. Colonel Meadows Taylor records bathing here in 1857 and says that the waters gave his malaria temporary relief. As might be expected, the place contains several spots of mythological interest, particularly the bath or *Nhāṇi* of Sītā and an underground temple of Mahādeva in a natural cave; also some images cut in the natural rock. A hill close by is crowned with a rough stone fort known as Bābu Khān's *Killā* after a famous Pendhārī who occupied it. The fort can still be seen though now it is almost in a crumbled position. Near this place B. Hirā Lāl has discovered two Buddhist *vihāras* or monasteries consisting of spacious halls and rooms all cut out of rock. One of them contains a headless image of Buddha, now worshipped as a *Devī* with vermilion and water.

The Betul Gazetteer gives the following story about the village: "A small village about 71 km. (44 miles) south of Badnur on the Māḍu river. A cave in a hill by the village, approached through a long narrow passage, contains an idol of Mahādeva. It is believed that an underground passage leads from this cave to Mahādeva hill at Pañcmaḍhī and it is said that Mahādeva put two thousand goats into the passage at Pañcmaḍhī and only one came out at Sālbarḍī. It is said also that a hole in the hill leads down to the cave and that this hole was made by Bhīmsena so that he might see Mahādeva better. There were also hot and cold water springs here, but those have now become mixed. A temple on the hill contains a headless image of a Devī and a pool of reddish coloured water is supposed to be tinged by the blood that fell from the image when its head was cut off An annual fair is held here in March, on *Mahāśivrātra* day and lasts for three days, and is attended by about 5,000 persons, nearly a hundred temporary shops being opened for the sale of goods. In the village is a quarry of hard stone from which mortars, cups and cooking slabs are made. There is also a quarry of limestone". Drinking water is obtained from the wells. A mixed primary school gives education up to 3rd standard. Morśī is the bazar place.

Sālbarḍī is named from its abundance of *sāl* trees and the stony character of its soil.

SATPUDA HILLS.

Geographical Position.

Sātpuḍā Hills is a range of hills in the centre of India. The name, which is modern, originally belonged to the hills which divide the Narmadā and Tāpī valleys in Nimār, Madhya Pradesh and were styled the *Sāt Putra* or seven sons of the Vindhyan mountains. Another derivation is from Sātpūd (seven folds), referring to the numerous parallel ridges of the range. The local interpretation placed on the Sātpuḍā refers the word to the seven district ridges that a traveller from the Berar valley has to cross before he reaches the Narmadā. Taking Amarkaṇṭak in Revā, Central India (20° 40′ N. 81° 46′ E.) as the eastern boundary, the Sātpuḍās extend from east to west for about 965 km. (600 miles)

SATPUDA HILLS. Geographical Position.

and in their greatest depth exceed 161 km. (100 miles) from north to south. The shape of the range is almost triangular. The western prolongation of the Sātpuḍā hills, which walls in the northern frontier of Berār, lies chiefly in Amrāvatī district and is sometimes spoken of as the Gāvilgaḍ range, from the fort of that name which stands on one of its highest buttresses directly overlooking the plains below. The range is almost coterminous with Melghāṭ tahsil so called not from *ghāṭ*, a mountain, but from Melghāṭ a small village and ford on its northern side; and forms the watershed between the Tāpī on the north and the Pūrṇā and the Wardhā rivers on the south. Its greatest length through the Betul, Amrāvati and Nimār districts is probably about 257.440 km. (160 miles). The hills rise abruptly from the plains of Berār on one side and from the banks of the Tāpī on the other, the summits reaching an elevation of about 610 metres to 1220 metres (two thousand to four thousand feet). Plateaux, rather than isolated peaks are the rule, interspersed with precipitous ravines.

The most notable elevations locally are Khāmlā (now in M. P.) 1,128.560 metres (3,700 feet) and Bhainsdehī 795.745 metres (2,609 feet) in Betul, Bairāṭ (3,866 feet), Cikhaldarā 1,179.130 metres (3,664 feet) in Amrāvatī and Narnālā 625.860 metres (2,052 feet) in Akolā. The last named though geographically part of the Melghāṭ tahsil was handed over to Akolā apparently with the idea that it should be a hill station for that district. Its inaccessibility, however, has largely prevented its use.

SAVALAPUR

Sāvalāpūr has 263 houses and 1,428 inhabitants as per the 1961 Census. It is a village in Acalpūr tahsil on the borders of Amrāvatī tahsil adjoining Āsegāṅv. It is situated on the banks of the Pūrṇā. Its only claim to be noticed is a fairly executed image of Keśavnārāyaṇa which was unearthed here in 1884

SAVANGA.

Sāvaṅgā is a small village in Cāndūr tahsil with 541 inhabitants and 133 houses according to the 1961 Census. A fair in honour of Viṭhobā commences on *Caitra Śuddha Pratipadā* and lasts for three days. It is attended by about 2.000 persons. The village has a primary school and a *cāvḍi.*

SEMADOH.

Semaḍoh in Melghāṭ tahsil, a forest village 43 km. (27 miles) from Acalpūr, on the Dhārṇī road: the population, 402 in number, is entirely Korku. It is the headquarters of the Range Forest Officer of Semaḍoh range. The Forest department has developed a nursery for bringing up plants on scientific basis. It maintains three elephants for the transportation of logs from interior areas, and also some tractors. There is a Forest Labour Society, a dispensary conducted by the Zillā Pariṣad and a primary school managed by the Tribal Welfare Department.

SHENDURJANA.

Śendūrjanā is a town in Morśī *tahsil* about 96.56 km. (60 miles) east of Acalpūr with 2,376 houses and a population of 11,610 as per the 1961 Census. The contiguous village of Malkāpūr has been included in Śendūrjanā and with it constitutes a single municipal town. Śendūrjanā was formerly held by an agent of

CHAPTER 19. Places. SHENDURJANA.

the Nāgpūr *Rājā* called Gaikwāḍ, in *inām* He lived there and made the village one of considerable renown. About a kilometre away he built a splendid well which goes by his name and which is said to have cost him Rs. 20,000 in those days. Ruins of a small mosque and tombs of some early European adventurers are noticed. The temple of Bālājī needs repairs. There is also an old temple of Śiva. The weekly bazar is held on Fridays at which timber, jaggery, chillis and turmeric are sold on a large scale. Śendūrjanā has three primary schools, a *bālak mandir* and a high school named as the Janatā High School. In addition there is a branch post and telegraph office. Across the rivers Tivnā and Devnā, which flow to the north of the town, dams have been laid and water utilised for irrigation.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

The municipality at Śendūrjanā was established in 1948 and the area under its jurisdiction is 10.20 km^2 (3.949 sq. miles).

Finance.

In 1962-63, income accrued from various sources excluding income under extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,16,125.78. The sources of income were municipal rates and taxes Rs. 57,836.04 ; realization under special acts, Rs. 702.25 ; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 10.290.04 ; grants and contributions, Rs. 46,509.35 and miscellaneous, Rs. 788.10. Expenditure during the same year excluding expenditure due to extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,08,332.81. It comprised administration and collection charges, Rs. 16,327.86 ; public safety, Rs. 6,171.23 ; public health and convenience, Rs. 42,130.53 ; public instruction, Rs. 40,704.27 ; contributions for general purposes, Rs. 200.00 and miscellaneous, Rs. 2,798.92.

Health and Sanitation.

There are civil and veterinary dispensaries conducted by Government. The town has *pucca* stone-lined gutters. At present water supply is obtained from the wells.

Education.

Primary education is under the management of the municipality and is compulsory. In 1962-63 the number of pupils in both Urdu and Marāṭhī schools was 1,033 and that of teachers 27.

Roads.

Roads within the municipal limits measure only 13.277 km. (eight miles, two furlongs) of which 3.219 km. (2 miles) are metalled.

Cremation and Burial Places.

Cemeteries and cremation grounds are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

The town has three old temples dedicated to Mahādeva.

SHENDURJANA BUZRUK.

Śendūrjanā Buzruk is a village in Cāndūr tahsil with in 1961, 394 houses and 1,848 inhabitants. There are a *musāfir khānā*, a *cāvḍī* and a primary school. It is noteworthy on account of the large weekly bazar held on Tuesdays at which, besides other usual commodities, cattle are also sold. The village has a centre of the Servants of India Society.

Taḷegāṅv Daśāsar is a village in Cāndūr tahsil with 1,367 houses and a population of 6,306. At one time it was the largest town in Cāndūr tahsil and was its headquarters. The name might have been derived from the existence of four lakes in and around the village. Daśāsar, the second name is a corruption of the Sanskṛt word *Daśa sahasra.* The origin of its nickname *Daśa Sahasra* is peculiar but not very credible. The legend runs thus; the wife of the *Jāgīrdār* and the wife of a wealthy merchant went to the market one day. It so happened that on this particular day an uncommonly fine pumpkin (some say ash gourd) was displayed for sale. It attracted the notice of both simultaneously. Both admired it and desired it and finally both began to outbid each other; the merchant's wife, determined to have it at any cost, the dignity of the *Jāgīrdār's* wife forbade her giving way The price rose rapidly. One hundred seemed a trifle. So also five. A thousand was reached and the pair got warm to their work. So they quickly bade up to five thousand, and from that to ten thousand, at which price it was ultimately knocked down. The legend unfortunately keeps us in the dark as to who carried off the prize, but it is believed that the merchant's wife was the victor. Hence in memory of this exciting contest the town was dubbed "Daśa Sahasra" which means ten thousand. A more probable derivation is from the number of inhabitants in the town at the height of its prosperity, or from its revenue in rupees.

Taḷegāṅv is now in ruins but the remnants of many fine houses and temples attest to its former prosperity. One of the best known of its relics is the *dargāh* of *fakir* Śāh Abdul Latif Kādrī which had a grant of land from the Emperor Śāh Jahān. It had originally a brick wall around but now it lies in a dilapidated state and is past repairs. The chamber containing the tomb of the *Avaliyā* is 1.858m² metres (20 ft. square) and has a dome. A copy of the Qurāṇ, hand-written by Śāh Abdul Latif himself during his life-time has been placed beside the grave. An *urus* is held on the *Muharrum* day. The *dargāh* is ill maintained. The village is known for the Śaṅkar Pat festival which is held on the day following the *urus*, its principal feature among other things being the bullock-cart race. It lasts for two days and is attended by over 60,000 persons coming from all over the district and even outside. Rewards up to Rs. 1,000 are awarded to the winners. The programme is carried out under the supervision of the Zillā Pariṣad.

There are temples dedicated to Mārutī, Rāma, Viṭṭhala, Keśava and Madhyameśvara. The first of these viz., that of Mārutī is said to date back from the times of the Yādavas and has an old squarish well in the backyard. The village has a police station, a post and telegraph office, two primary schools, one each for boys and girls, a Marāṭhī and a Urdu middle schools, a high school called Bālājī High School, a civil and a veterinary dispensary and a co-operative society.

Tivasā is a village in Cāndūr tahsil with 891 houses and 4,144 inhabitants according to the 1961 Census. It has a temple of

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TIVASA.

Bālājī which was built by one Rāmratan Gaṇeśdās, Mārvāḍī, a prosperous money-lender. The temple built at a cost of Rs. 15,000 is to date in a very good condition. The vestibule adorned with a *śikhar* contains a flint stone idol of Bālājī wearing a facial plaque of brass. Tivasā has the office of the Pancāyat Samiti, a high school, a police station, a post office, a maternity home, a primary health centre, and a rest house. Drinking water is obtained from wells. Tivasā has very rich soil, favourable for commercial crops, cotton and groundnut being the chief crops in order of importance.

Objects.

Besides the Bālājī shrine there is the *dargāh* of Safrid Bābā and *samādhis* of Soṭagīr *Mahārāj* and Ratangīr *Mahārāj*.

Dargāh of Safrid Bābā.

Safrid *Bābā* was a noted Musalmān saint or *Avaliyā* who lived in this village and died some seventy years ago. His tomb is situated on a hill top, just on the outskirts of the village, which was his abode and where he breathed his last. The saint sustained himself by asking alms from door to door. Muslims as well as Hindus, believe that those spending the night on the hill behold him in dreams and that he fulfils their cherished desires. It is also said that his spirit is seen moving through the village at a certain hour of the night. Some of the people from the village who had gone to Kāśī to perform a pilgrimage are reported to have seen him in the crowd.

Soṭagīr Mahārāj Samādhi.

Soṭagīr *Mahārāj* was a Hindu saint who lived in this village some ninety years ago and was much revered by the Hindus. His *samādhī* is to be seen on the banks of the river Ḍnyānagaṅgā. He is said to be seen riding on a horse very often at night time, especially so on *Paurṇimā* and *Amavāsyā* nights and is believed to protect those who get lost in the jungles. The *samādhī* has about 10.117 hectares (25 acres) of land allotted for its maintenance.

Samādhī of Ratangīr Mahārāj.

Ratangīr *Mahārāj*, also a Hindu saint, was a contemporary of Soṭagir *Mahārāj* and lived some eighty years ago. Every Monday most of the Hindus of this village visit his *samādhī* to pay their respects and offer prayers and to make vows. It is believed that those who offer prayers devotedly at the *samādhi* are cured of any disease. Like Soṭagīr *Mahāraj*, Ratangīr *Mahārāj* is also reported to be seen riding on a horse.

Virul.

Virūl, a village in Cāndūr tahsil with 376 houses and 1,603 inhabitants according to the 1961 census is situated to the north of Cāndūr town 6 km (four miles) from the railway station. It has a primary school, a middle school and a post-office. The weekly bazar is held on Fridays. There are four temples of which the one dedicated to Mahādeva is deeply revered. It is reported that in mediaeval times a peculiarly painful vow was performed to propitiate the deity. The devotee would take a length of coarse string and pass it under the skin on both sides of his body. Then two friends would hold the ends of the string and he would walk to and fro along the length of the string in front of these temples, the string sawing his flesh and blood oozing out of it as he performed the feat. This painful practice has, however, been discontinued since long and is not in vogue now.

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VADNER GANGAI.

Vadner Gangāi is a village in Daryāpūr tahsil of no particular importance with 3,967 inhabitants and 863 houses according to the 1961 Census. It has two middle schools teaching up to eighth standard, one Marāṭhī and the other Urdu. A story is current that Auraṅgzeb in his march through Berar halted at this village at midday, and being thirsty called for milk, which, after much trouble and many threats of the Emperor's displeasure, his followers succeeded in obtaining. Auraṅgzeb drank it and was much refreshed. On enquiring he was told that the milk was mother's milk, and has been given to the king's messengers by two old women Sītāī and Gaṅgāī both over a hundred years of age, whom they found near the temple of Mārutī. Henceforth the village was given its second name, though why Gaṅgāī and not Sītāī should have been selected is not clear. The village is also known as Vaḍner Zagajī Bāvā, after a kuṇbi ascetic whose shrine here has an *inām* of 97.200 hectares (240 acres) and which is looked after by one Nārāyaṇ Tukārām Bhagat.

WARUD.

Objects.

Warūḍ is a town of considerable commercial importance in Morśī tahsil containing as per 1961 Census 3,158 houses inhabited by 15,888 persons. It has flourished on either banks of the river Cuḍāmaṇi and lies 90.104 km. (56 miles) east of Acalpūr and 85.277 km. (53 miles) from Amrāvatī, the district headquarters. Warūḍ has excellent means of communications and in this respect it is the most important town in the tahsil. A first class road goes to Amrāvatī via Morśī, another to Multāī by Bikaṭghāṭ, and there are other roads going to Nāgpūr and Kāṭol via Āmner. Of these the road via Āmner is ordinary and can be used only in the fair weather. In addition to roads it has the following railway stations close by *viz.*, Nārkheḍ in Nagpūr district and Paṇḍhurṇā and Multāī in Madhya Pradesh. Thus Warūḍ is much better off in respect of transport than any of the other places in the tahsil. The educational institutions at Warūḍ include an Arts College named as the Mahātmā Fule Mahāvidyālaya, New English High School, and Pārvatibāī Dharmādhikārī Kanyāśāḷā, five primary schools, one Urdu school and a *Bālak Mandir.* The town has also a library which is named as the Deśabandhudās Vācanālaya. Warūḍ is noted for its orange plantation and a considerable trade in cotton, there being two markets one each for oranges and cotton. There is also a chilli market. Being a centre of considerable commercial importance branches of the State Bank of India, the Land Mortgage Bank and the District Co-operative Bank have sprung up. The public buildings also include a post office, the office of the Pancāyat Samiti and the municipal office. There is a Poultry Farming Centre. The town has several old temples and two mosques, but the more important ones are the Kedāreśvara *Mandir*, Rāma *Mandir* and the Jumma *Masjid.*

Kedāreśvar Temple.

A few yards from the Warūḍ motor stand, on the bank of the river Cuḍāmaṇī is the temple of Kedāreśvara, with a *ghāṭ* on the back side. An inscription of the 10th Century found near the temple makes the temple a relic of the ancient period. The

CHAPTER 19. Places. WARUD. Objects. *Kedāreśvar Temple.*

temple, with a small courtyard in the front, is only 1.858 m² (20 ft. square) and contains a *Linga*. In this courtyard there is an image of *Nandi* with two small shrines on either side containing idols of some deities. On the northern side a new entrance gate of cement concrete has been constructed, while in the front facing the temple a one storeyed building has been built. The inscription referred to above has been fixed in one of the side walls of the ground floor. Every day hundreds of people visit the temple to offer their prayers. Three fairs are held annually *viz.*, at the time of *Āṣadhi Paurṇimā, Kārtiki Paurṇimā* and *Mahāśivrātra* day and are fairly well attended.

Rām Temple.

Rāma *Mandir* is to the west of the town and has a six-pillared *sabhāmaṇḍap*. The *gābhāra* crowned with a small *śikhar*, contains the idols of Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa and Sitā, all of white marble. *Rāma Navami* and *Gokuḷ Aṣṭami* attended only by the local people are celebrated.

Besides the temples noted above Warūḍ has another temple called Savātā *Manḍir* belonging to the Māḷi community.

Jummā Masjid.

Jummā *Masjiḍ*, with a considerable open courtyard in the front, was built in 1906 and is entered through a lofty gateway surmounted by two *minārs*. It has two prayer halls, the outer and the inner, the former measuring 4.572 x 3.048 metres (15′ x 10′) and the latter 9.144 x 4.572 (30′ x 15′). The top of the mosque is also crowned with two *minārs*. It is built in the traditional style. An elected committee looks after its maintenance.

Municipality. *Constitution.*

The Municipality at Warūḍ was established in 1937. It has an area of 16.39 km² (6.33 sq. miles) under its jurisdiction. The President, elected by the councillors, looks after administrative affairs aided by the necessary staff.

Income and Expenditure.

In 1961-62, the income of the municipality accrued from various sources excluding extraordinary and debt heads amounted to Rs. 1,94,353. The income comprised municipal rates and taxes, Rs. 103.774.00; revenue derived from municipal property and powers apart from taxation, Rs. 44,808.00; grants and contributions for special and general purposes, Rs. 45,297 and miscellaneous, Rs. 232.00. Expenditure during the same year, excluding that on extraordinary and debt heads came to Rs. 2,23,010.00. It comprised general administration and collection charges, Rs. 50,203.00; public safety, Rs. 11,201.00; public health and convenience, Rs. 1,01,719.00; public instruction, Rs. 51,025.00; contributions, Rs. 2,201.00 and miscellaneous, Rs. 3,656.00.

Municipal Works and Buildings.

In recent years, the municipality has provided its sweepers with residential quarters, built a godown, a vegetable market and a small building for the octroi. In addition it owns four buildings housing primary schools as also a cattle-pound.

Health and Sanitation.

There are civil and veterinary dispensaries and a maternity home. Prompt measures are taken to vaccinate the people whenever the situation demands. While some quarters of the

town have *pucca* drains, some others continue to have *kutcha* ones. However, it is proposed to convert *kutcha* drains into *pucca* ones. Drinking water is obtained from wells, private and public.

Municipality. *Education.*

Primary education is compulsory in the town and is under the management of the municipality. A montessori school is also conducted by the municipality. In the year 1962 there were 1,166 pupils in Marāṭhī and Urdu schools with thirty-two teachers.

Roads.

The length of the metalled roads is 3 km. (1 mile 7 furlongs) and of the unmetalled ones, 5.428 km. (3 miles 3 furlongs).

Cremation and Burial grounds.

Cremation and burial grounds are maintained and used by the communities concerned.

WARUD BAGAJI.

Warūḍ Bāgājī is a small village of 489 people situated on the banks of the river Wārdhā in Cāndūr tahsil, about 4.483 km. (three miles) distant from Maṅgruḷ Dastagīr. The second name Bāgājī has been derived from the *samādhī* of a Hindu ascetic named Bāgājī Bābā, in whose honour a fair is held annually on *Phālgun Vadya* 6 (March). In olden days the fair used to last for more than a month and carts, cart wheels, cloth, copper and brass vessels were sold. But now the fair has dwindled in importance and has become a single day's affair attended by about a thousand persons. The village has a primary school.

WATHODA.

Wāṭhoḍā is a village in Cāndūr tahsil lying at a distance of 6 km. (four miles) from Kholāpūr, situated on the river Pūrṇā and has a population of 672. It has a school and a branch post-office. There is also a temple of Śukleśvara which has for its maintenance a rent-free land of 1.0925 hectares (2 acres and 28 gunthas).

YAVALI.

Yavali is a small village in Amrāvatī tahsil 26 km. (16 miles) distant from Amrāvatī town, the district headquarters, and 6 km. (four miles) from Māhulī on the Amrāvatī-Morśī Road. The land around the village being boggy, communications become difficult during the rainy season. Its population as per the 1961 Census is 2,374 and mainly depends upon agriculture, jovar, cotton and *tur* being the principal crops. There is only one primary school for which a building was constructed in 1954. There is a branch post-office and an allopathic dispensary maintained by the Zillā Pariṣad. The only object of interest is an old temple of Mahādeva of masonry, situated to the north of the village. It has a spacious *sabhāmaṇḍap* having many pillars bearing some striking architectural work. The *gābhārā* housing the *liṅga* is 0.743 m^2 (eight feet square).

Just behind the temple there is a big tank about 24.400 × 24.400 metres (80′ × 80′). There are broad and long steps leading to the water level. It is said to have been constructed during the famine of 1918 to alleviate the water scarcity in the village.

YEVADA.

Yevadā in Daryāpūr tahsil is largely an agricultural village having an area of 4839.750 hectares (11,950 acres) of land under cultivation and yielding a land revenue of Rs. 24,697.50 and has a population of 5887. Under the Nizām a Naib *Peṣkār* or

CHAPTER 19.

Places.

YEVADA.

Mahalkari named Ukadsiṅg was stationed here for a considerable time who built the temple of Rāmacandra, still in existence. In the year 1959 fire broke out in the temple destroying a part of it which now lies uncared for. There are Marāṭhī and Urdu schools. There is also a high school. The village is occasionally spoken of as Yevadā Ukadsiṅg.

DIRECTORY OF VILLAGES AND TOWNS

EXPLANATION OF COLUMN HEADINGS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

The names of towns and villages are arranged in alphabetical order for the whole of the district.

***Column* (1).**—The names are given both in English and Deonagari. The English spelling is marked diacritically as under :—

ā-आ ; ī-ई ; ū-ऊ ; ṛ-ऋ ; c-च् ; ch-छ् ; ṭ-ट् ; ṭh-ठ् ; ḍ-ड् ; ḍh-ढ् ; n-न् ; ṅ-ङ ; ñ-ञ ; ṇ-ण् ; ś-श् ; ṣ-ष् ; s-स् ; ḷ-ळ्.

Abbreviations indicating tahsils—

Acr—Achalpur.
Amt—Amravati.
Cdr—Chandur.
Dyr—Daryapur.
Mlg—Melghat.
Msi—Morshi.

***Column* (2).**—(*a*) direction and (*b*) travelling distance of the village from the tahsil headquarters.

Abbreviations used showing direction from tahsil headquarters—

E—East.	NE—North-East.
W—West.	SE—South-East.
N—North.	NW—North-West.
S—South.	SW—South-West.

HQ—Headquarters.

***Column* (3).**—(*a*) Area (Sq. miles) ; (*b*) Total population ; (*c*) Number of households ; (*d*) Total number of 'cultivators' and 'agricultural labourers'.

***Column* (4).**—(*a*) Post office ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

***Column* (5).**—(*a*) Railway station ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

***Column* (6).**—(*a*) Weekly bazar ; (*b*) Bazar day ; (*c*) Distance of the bazar place from the village.

***Column* (7).**—(*a*) Nearest motor stand ; (*b*) Its distance from the village.

***Column* (8).**—Drinking water facilities available in the village—

br—brook.	pl—pipe-line.
cl—canal.	spr—spring.
n—nalla.	str—stream.
o—scarcity of water.	t—tank.
p—pond.	W—big-well.
rsr—reservoir.	w—small-well.

***Column* (9).**—Miscellaneous information about school, panchayat, co-operative society, temple, math, mosque, dargah, chavadi, gymnasium, library, dispensary, church and inscription—

Sl—school.	tr-clg—Training College.	(c)—credit.	(mis)—miscellaneous.
(h)—high.	mun—municipality.	(fmg)—farming.	(mp)—multipurpose.
(m)—middle.	pyt—panchayat.	(i)—industrial.	(sp)—sale and purchase.
(pr)—primary.	Cs—co-operative society.	(con)—consumers.	(wvg)—weaving.
			Fr—fair.

Months according to Hindu Calendar—

Ct—Chaitra ; Vsk—Vaishakha ; Jt—Jaishtha ; Asd—Ashadha ; Srn—Shravana ; Bdp—Bhadrapada ; An—Ashvina ; Kt—Kartika ; Mrg—Margashirsha ; Ps—Pausha ; Mg—Magha ; Phg—Phalguna ; Sud—Shudha (first fortnight of the month) ; Vad—Vadya (second fortnight of the month).

Other abbreviations used—

tl—temple.	gym—gymnasium.
m—math.	ch—chavadi.
mq—mosque.	lib—library
dg—dargah.	dp—dispensary.
dh—dharamshala.	Cch—Church.
dp. vet.—Veterinary dispensary.	ins—inscription.

***N.B.*—Figures for distance in columns (2), (4), (5), (6) and (7) stand for miles and furlongs.**
***Column (7) gives the nearest motor stand and its distance.**

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance (4)
Acalpūr (Urban Area)—Acr.—अचलपूर (नागरी विभाग).	S; 0·2	23·8; 36538; 6880; 5293	Local; ..
Acalpūr Camp (Urban Area)—Acr.—अचलपूर कॅम्प (नागरी विभाग).	N; 2·0	2·4; 17490; 3335; 1399	Local; ..
Aḍagāṅv—Dyr.—अडगांव ..	SE; 16·0	3·0; 172; 35; 61	Local; ..
Aḍagāṅv—Dyr.—अडगांव ..	NW; 20·0	0·8; 855; 194; 450	Bhandaraj; 2·0
Aḍagāṅv—Msi.—अडगांव ..	SW; 18·0	3·3; 2073; 500; 988	Local; ..
Aḍagāṅv Bk.—Amt.—अडगांव बु.	SE; 12·0	3·0; 779; 161; 387	Manjari; 2·0
Aḍagāṅv Kh.—Amt.—अडगांव खु.	S; 10·0	1·8; 383; 86; 179	Dabha; 2·0
Āḍavī—Amt.—आडवी ..	W; 23·0	1·0; 122; 25; 45	Kholapur; 2·4
Āḍhītpūr—Amt.—आढीतपूर .	.. ..	1·5; 366; 85; 205	.. ..
Aḍuḷā—Dyr.—अडुळा ..	W; 8·0	1·9; 1048; 236; 449	Local; ..
Ahamadapūr—Dyr.—अहमदपूर ..	E; 7·0	1·4; 314; 65; 154	Arala; 0·2
Ahamadapūr—Dyr.—अहमदपूर ..	N; 18·0	0·8; 96; 26; 40	Takarkheda; ..
Aivajapūr—Dyr.—ऐवजपूर ..	.. ..	2·5; 3; 3; ..	.. ..
Aivajapūr—Dyr.—ऐवजपूर ..	.. ..	Included in Urban Area I	.. ..
Ājamapūr—Msi.—आजमपूर ..	SW; 20·0	1·1; 178; 39; 78	Vichori; ..
Ajamatapūr—Amt.—अजमतपूर ..	.. ..	0·9; 1; 1; 1	.. ..
Ajijapūr—Dyr.—अजिजपूर ..	N; 18·0	Included in Urban Area I	
Ajītapūr—Dyr.—अजीतपूर ..	E; 8·0	0·9; 170; 40; 91	Arala; 0·6
Ākhatavāḍā—Msi.—आखतवाडा	SE; 9·0	2·3; 224; 50; 101	Nerpingalai; 0·4
Ākhatavāḍā—Cdr.—आखतवाडा ..	N; 24·0	3·0; 525; 115; 194	Kavadgavhan; 3·0
Ākī—Mlg.—आकी ..	.. ..	2·0; 279; 50; 148	Chikhaldara; 18·0
Ākhatavāḍā—Acr.—आखतवाडा ..	SE; 14·0	1·9; 400; 93; 188	Sirajganv Band; 2·0
Ākī—Mlg.—आकी ..	S; 8·0	1·5; 355; 59; 183	Dharni; 9·0
Ākolā—Amt.—आकोला ..	N; 9·5	12·8; 1923; 392; 812	Local; ..
Ākolī—Amt.—आकोली ..	S; 2·4	2·1; 318; 70; 161	Amravati; 3·0
Alamapūr—Acr.—अलमपूर ..	NE; 11·0	0·4; 225; 48; 113	Karajganv; 1·0
Ālamapūr—Dyr.—आलमपूर ..	NW; 25·0	0·4; 357; 81; 193	Karla; 2·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Local; 1·0	Local; Every day.	Local; ..	W;rv. pl.	22 Sl (13 pr, 3 m, 5h,clg); 2 Cs (mis); 90 tl; 52 mq; dg; dh; 15 gym; 2 lib; 18 dp.
Local; ..	Local;	Local; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (Pr,m,h); 4 Cs; Ganpati Fr. Bdp; 19 tl; m; 6 mq; 4 dg; dh; 4 gym; 2lib; 12dp; 4 Cch.
Kapus Talani; 3·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 3·0	W; w.	tl.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Bhandaraj; 2·0; Wed.	.. 0·5	W; w.	Sl (pr); 4 Cs (3cs,mis); Govindgir Maharaj Fr. Ct. Sud. 1; 3 tl; dg.
Amravati; 18·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 3·0	W; w.	Sl (m); Cs (c); tl; gym; lib; 4 dp.
Timtala; 3·0	Badnera; 6·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Badnera; 3·0	Badnera; 3·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Amravati; 23·0	Darapur; 3·0; Fri.	Kholapur; 3·0	W; n.	tl.
.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Banosa; 8·0	Local; .. Mon.	Yewda; 5·0	rv.; W	3Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; mq; dg; lib; dp.
Banosa; 7·0	Arala; 0·2; Sun.	.. 0·4	W.	Sl (pr).
Anjanganv; 2·0	Takarkheda; .. Fri.	.. 2·0	W.	Cs.
.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	..
Amravati; 24·0	Vichori; .. Wed.	.. 2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	W.	..
.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	..
Banosa; 7·0	Borala; 0·4; Wed.	.. 0·4	W; w.	tl.
Amravati; 25·0	Nerpingalai; 0·4; Thu.	Nerpingalai, 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m.
Chandur; 24·0	Shendurjana; 6·0; Tue.	.. 6·0	W; w.	2 Sl (pr,h); pyt; Cs; 2 mq; lib.
.. 9·0	.. 7·0; Fri.	.. ..	..	..
Achalpur; 20·0	Sirajganv Band; 2·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tukaithad; 25·0	Dharni; 9·0; Fri.	Dharni; 8·0	rv.	..
Amravati; 10·0	Valganv; 4·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W; w.	3 Sl (pr,m,h); 5 tl; 3 m; mq; ch; dp (vet).
Amravati; 3·0	Amravati; 3·0; Wed; Sun.	Amravati; 2·4	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Elichpur; .. 10·0	Paratvada; 8·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W; w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Anjanganv; 9·0	Karla; 2·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Ālamapūr—Dyr.—आलमपूर ..	S; 6·0	0·6; 33; 9; 10	Kanholi; 0·1
Aḷaṇagāṅv—Amt.—अळणगांव ..	W; 10·0	3·4; 1001; 197; 501	Local; ..
Alīpūr—Acr.—अलीपूर ..	E; 18·0	0·3; 346; 80; 112	Madhan; 0·1
Āloḍā—Msi.—आलोडा ..	NE; 15·0	1·9; 663; 147; 346	Loni; 2·0
Alvāḍā—Cdr.—अलवाडा ..	NE; 14·0	0·9; 69; 13; 40	Anjansingi; 0·2
Āmadāpūr—Amt.—आमदापूर ..	SE; 6·7	0·9; 37; 10; 21	Bhankheda Kh; 1·4
Ambāḍā—Msi.—अंबाडा ..	W; 7·0	2·2; 3963; 975; 1859	Local; ..
Ambāḍā Kaṇḍārī—Acr.—अंबाडा कंडारी.	E; 2·4	3·1; 411; 90; 208	Paratvada; 2·0
Āmalā—Amt.—आमला ..	N; 7·0	1·4; 265; 68; 151	Valganv; 2·0
Āmalā—Cdr.—आमला ..	S; 6·0	4·2; 3016; 745; 1483	Local; ..
Āmalā—Dyr.—आमला ..	NW; 11·0	2·8; 690; 169; 331	Local; ..
Āmaner—Msi.—आमनेर ..	E; 33·0	1·9; 1731; 369; 691	Jalalkheda; 0·4
Ambāḍī—Mlg.—अंबाडी ..	S; 6·0	1·7; 297; 54; 175	Kalamkhar; 2·4
Ambāpāṭhī—Mlg.—अंबापाठी ..	.. ..	1·7; 211; 35; 136	Chikhaldara; 13·0
Amdābād—Cdr.—अमदाबाद ..	NE; 20·0	1·8; 86; 22; 38	Shendurjana; 3·0
Amḍāpūr—Msi.—अमडापूर ..	W; 25·0	1·4; 648; 139; 307	Rajura; 0·1
Amdorī—Cdr.—अमदोरी ..	NE; 6·0	4·1; 433; 95; 147	Amala; 3·0
Amarāvatī (Urban Area)—Amt.—अमरावती (नागरी विभाग).	HQ; ..	14·0; 137875; 28044; 4532	Local; ..
Amṛllāpūr—Acr.—अमृल्लापूर ..	E; 8·0	1·6; 249; 55; 119	Taleganv; ..
Anakvāḍī—Cdr.—अनकवाडी ..	N; 19·0	3·3; 547; 111; 236	Shirajganv; 2·0
Ānandavāḍī—Msi.—आनंदवाडी	SW; 19·0	0·4; 48; 9; 23	.. ..
Añcalavāḍī—Amt.—अंचलवाडी ..	SE; 19·0	1·2; 352; 70; 183	Nirul; 1·0
Aṅgoḍā—Amt.—अंगोडा ..	N; 9·0	1·0; 124; 26; 50	Nandura Bk; 3·0
Añjangāṅv—Cdr.—अंजनगाव ..	E; 14·0	1·6; 442; 101; 234	Nimbhora; 2·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Leheganv;	4·0	Banosa;	7·0; Thu.	Stage;	0·3	rv; w.	Cs (gr); 2 tl.
Amravati;	6·0	Khartaleganv;	3·0; Tue.	..	3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Amravati;	26·0	Chandur Bazar;	3·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar;	3·0	W; w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 2 tl; lib; 2 dp.
Pandurana;	31·0	Loni;	2·0; Wed.	..	6·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhamanganv;	10·0	Anjansingi;	0·2; Sun.	Anjansingi;	0·4	W.	Cs; tl.
Malkhed;	3·0	Malkhed;	3·0; Tue.	Pohara;	4·0	W; n.	tl.
Amravati;	43·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W.	4 Sl (pr, 2m, h); pyt; 2Cs; 6 tl; m; mq; dg; gym; lib.; dp.
Achalpur;	3·0	Paratvada;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·4	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Amravati;	8·0	Valganv;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W; rv.	2 tl.
Chandur;	6·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Krushna Paksha 13; 8 tl; dg; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Daryapur;	10·0	Local;	.. Sun.	..	5·0	rv; W; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Laxmi Narayan Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 4 tl; 2 m; dh; gym; lib; 2 dp.
Katol;	15·0	Jalalkheda;	0·4; Fri.; Mon.	Local;	..	rv; W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Muharram Ur. Ct. Sud. 9, 10; 8 tl; 2 mq; dg; ch; lib.
Tukaithad;	15·0	Kalamkhar;	2·4; Sat.	Kalamkhar;	3·0	W; n.	2 tl.
Achalpur;	18·0	Paratvada;	18·0, Thu.	..	..	..	..
Arvi;	11·0	Shendurjana;	3·0; Tue.	Bhambora;	2·0	W.	tl.
Pandurana;	25·0	Rajura.	0·1; Thu	Rajura;	0·1	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Chandur;	6·0	Amala;	3·0; Wed.	Amala;	2·0	W; rv.	Cs; 4 tl.
Local;	..	Local;	.. Wed; Sun.	Local;	..	W; w; pl.	21 Sl (10 pr, 5 m, 5 h, clg); mun; Cs; Devi Fr. An. Sud 10; 6 tl; 3 m.; 2 mq; 2 dh; 2 gym; lib; 4 dp.
Achalpur;	8·0	Taleganv;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	rv; w.	Cs (c); tl.
Chandur;	25·0	Shendurjana;	2·0; Tue.	Mojhari;	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	Included in Belora village.
Amravati;	19·0	Nirul;	1·0; Tue.	..	3·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	9·0	Takali Jahagir;	1·0; Tue.	..	2·0	W.	2 tl.
Talani;	2·0	Dhamanganv;	6·0; Sun.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Añjangāṅv—Amt.—अंजनगाव ..	SE; 10·0	2·6; 4306; 916; 1710	Local; ..
Añjangāṅv(Urban Area)—Dyr.—अंजनगांव (नागरी विभाग).	.. ..	1·3; 21931; 4413; 4983	.. ..
Añjanī—Amt.—अंजनी ..	SW; 13·0	2·0; 269; 64; 139	Phul Amla; 1·0
Añjansiṅgī—Cdr.—अंजनसिंगी ..	NE; 17·0	6·9; 2369; 558; 1068	Local; ..
Añjanvatī—Cdr.—अंजनवती ..	NE; 13·0	2·6; 1067; 234; 451	Local; ..
Antāpūr—Amt.—अंतापूर ..	W; 23·0	0·8; 161; 32; 49	Local; ..
Antargāṅv—Dyr.—अंतरगांव ..	NW; 6·0	1·3; 413; 100; 211	Itaki; ..
Antarkhop—Msi.—अंतरखोप ..	N; 23·0	0·7; 9; 8; 9	.. ..
Antorā—Amt.—अंतोरा ..	NE; 18·0	2·9; 950; 208; 401	Local; ..
Aphajalpūr—Amt.—अफजलपूर ..	N; 16·0	0·5; 286; 69; 127	Rama; ..
Aphajhalapūr—Msi.—अफझलपूर	W; 17·1	0·4; 46; 10; 23	Chandur Bazar; 2·0
Arāḷā—Dyr.—अराळा ..	E; 7·0	1·7; 460; 94; 187	Local; ..
Auraṅgapūr—Dyr.—औरंगपूर ..	N; 15·0	0·4; 62; 9; 36	Kasbegavhan; 0·4
Antaragāṅv—Dyr.—अंतरगांव ..	W, 14·0	2·2; 420; 96; 210	Varud Bk.; 4·0
Āregāṅv—Acr.—आरेगांव ..	NW; 7·0	0·5; 287; 64; 140	Vadganv; 2·0
Āsarā—Amt.—आसरा ..	W; 26·0	8·3; 2300; 507; 994	Local; ..
Asatapūr—Acr.—असतपूर ..	S; 14·0	4·3; 3218; 685; 1236	Local; ..
Āsegāṅv—Acr.—आसेगांव ..	E; 13·0	1·9; 1193; 262; 64	Local; ..
Āsegāṅv—Cdr.—आसेगांव ..	SE; 15·0	3·0; 759; 182; 347	Vadhona; 2·0
Aśok Nagar—Cdr.—अशोक नगर..	N; 12·0	4·4; 1176; 258; 542	Local; ..
Āṣṭā—Cdr.—आष्टा ..	E; 20·0	1·5; 557; 136; 249	Chincholi; 3·0
Āsonā—Msi.—आसोना ..	NE; 6·0	2·2; 111; 28; 49	Pimpalkhuta; 2·0
Aśraphapūr—Cdr.—अश्रफपूर ..	SE; 6·0	0·3; 76; 15; 24	Satephal; 3·0
Āṣṭagāṅv—Msi.—आष्टगांव ..	W; 6·0	3·1; 372; 97; 198	Khanapur; 2·0
Āṣṭī—Amt.—आष्टी ..	E; 11·6	6·6; 1960; 447; 909	Local; ..
Āṣṭolī—Msi.—आष्टोली ..	W; 14·0	1·5; 811; 201; 418	Local; ..
Auraṅgapūr—Amt.—औरंगपूर ..	NE; 15·0	0·6; 35; 8; 17	Yawali; 0·1
Bābandā—Mlg.—बाबंदा ..	W; 5·0	0·6; 223; 43; 122	Dharni; 4·0
Bābhaḷī—Dyr.—बाभळी ..	.. ..	.. 3; 2; 2	.. ..
Bābhaḷī—Dyr.—बाभळी ..		Included in Urban Area II.	

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Timtala; ..	Local; .. Thu.	Badnera; 4·0	W; w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m, h); Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Srn. 13; 6 tl; 3 m; mq; 3 dg; ch; lib; dp.
..	.. ..	.. ..	..	..
Takali Bk; 1·0	Badnera; 5·0; Mon.	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhamanganv; 9·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W; rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 9 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 dp.
Dhamanganv; 12·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 0·1	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; lib.
Kurum; 8·0	Darapur; 4·0; Fri.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Lehaganv; 2·4	Banosa; 6·0; Thu.	.. 4.0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Amravati; 18·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (m); 2 tl; lib; dp.
Amravati; 18·0	Thuganv; 3·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.; dp.
Amravati; 25·0	Chandur Bazar; 2·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Banosa; 7·0	Local; .. Sun	.. 0·4	W; t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl.
Kapus Talani; 5·0	Kasbegavhan; 0·4; Sat.	.. 10·0	w; rv.	Cs; 2 tl.
Akot; 13·0	Pimplod; 4·0; Mon.	Varud Bk; 4·5	rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Achalpur; 4·0	Vadganv; 2·0; Sun.	.. ..	W; w.	tl; 2 mq; 3 dg.
Mana; 9·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 6 tl; mq; lib; 2 dp; Cch.
Shindi; 10·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. ..	w; rv.	4 Sl (2 pr,; m, h) Cs (c); Narsih Maharaj Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15; 7 tl; 2 mq; ch; 2 lib; 6 dp.
Achalpur; 14·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	w; rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; ch; 2 dp.
Dhamanganv; 4·0	Dhamanganv, 4·0; Sun.	Local; .	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl, m; ch; dp.
Dhamanganv; 7·0	Anjansingi; 4·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs; 2 tl; m; ch; lib; dp.
Talani; 5·0	Pulganv; 5·0; Mon.	. ..	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; ch.
Amravati; 32·0	Pimpalkhuta; 2·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur; 6·0	Baggi; .. Thu.	Chandur; 6·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 40·0	Ambada; 2·0; Fri.	Stage;	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl; m; lib.
Amravati; 12·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; ..	W; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; mq; 2 dg; dh; lib; dp.
Amravati; 27·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 1·4	W; w.	Sl (pr); dg; dp.
Amravati; 15·0	Yawali; 0·1; Fri.	Local; 0·1	W.	..
Tukaithad; 16·0	Dharni; 4·0; Fri.	Local; 0·6	W.	..
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Bābhūlakheḍ—Msi.—बाभूळखेड ..	E;	32·0	0·7;	304;	60;	162	Ekadara;	1·0
Badanāpūr—Mlg.—बदनापूर ..	..	..	1·6;	576;	99;	259	Gaulkheda;	3·0
Baḍnerā (Rural Area)—Amt.—बडनेरा (ग्रामीण विभाग).	S;	7·0	6·7;	154;	30;	70	Badnera (Urban)	1·0
Baḍnerā (Urban Area)—Amt. बडनेरा (नागरी विभाग).	S;	6·0	6·6;	23840;	5124;	2517	Local;	..
Bāgadarī—Mlg.—बागदरी ..	..	..	2·3;	205;	34;	109	Katkumbha;	1·0
Bāgāpūr—Cdr.—बागापूर ..	SE;	5·0	1·1;	324;	76;	158	Satephal;	2·0
Baggī—Cdr.—बग्गी ..	N;	6·0	1·2;	430;	105;	187	Satephal;	2·0
Bahādā—Msi.—बहादा ..	N;	22·0	3·0;	544;	121;	306	Jarud;	2·0
Bahādarpūr—Amt.—बहादरपूर ..	SW;	15·0	19·8;	338;	71;	145	Dadhi;	3·0
Bahādarpūr—Mlg.—बहादरपूर ..	..	..	1·9;	57;	14;	35	Chikhaldara;	16·0
Balūlolapūr—Amt.- -बहिलोलपूर	S;	11·0	1·2;	349;	73;	168	Uttamsara;	1·0
Bahirampūr—Msi.—बहिरमपूर ..	SE;	13·0	0·9;	1;	1;	1	..	..
Bailamārakheḍā—Amt.—बैलमारखेडा.	NW;	16·0	1·0;	358;	62;	131	Dhanori;	2·0
Bairāgaḍ—Mlg.—बैरागड ..	N;	19·0	4·2;	784;	147;	412	Dharni;	20·0
Baḷegāṅv—Acr.—बळेगांव ..	S;	8·0	1·5;	423;	88;	199	Kushta Bk.;	2·0
Bāmādehī—Mlg.—बामादेही ..	..	..	2·3;	301;	53;	143	..	..
Banosā—Dyr.—बनोसा ..			Included in Urban Area II.					
Banosā—Dyr.—बनोसा ..	..	..	..	5;	4;	5	..	..
Bopanematābād—Amt.—बोपनेमताबाद.	S;	14·0	2·2;	415;	102;	225	Loni;	2·0
Bāragāṅv—Msi.—बारगांव ..	NE;	11·0	1·7;	394;	100;	215	Jamganv;	1·0
Beradā Bharu—Mlg.—बेरदा भरू	W;	5·0	3·1;	412;	79;	245	Dharni;	6·0
Barhāṇapūr—Acr.—बऱ्हाणपूर ..	E;	15·0	1·7;	245;	45;	118	Talavel;	0·4
Barhāṇapūr—Cdr.—बऱ्हाणपूर ..	SE;	23·0	1·0;	62;	16;	39	Pimpalkhuta;	2·0
Barhānapūr—Msi.—बऱ्हानपूर ..	W;	16·0	1·0;	220;	51;	98	Belora;	2·0
Bāru—Mlg.—बारू ..	S;	8·0	3·5;	135;	29;	76	Dharni;	8·0
Bāsalāpūr—Cdr.—बासलापूर ..	W;	3·2	0·8;	426;	103;	204	Manjarkhed;	1·0
Bāsapānī—Mlg.—बासपानी ..	S;	1·0	1·4;	253;	42;	165	Dharni;	1·4
Bāsevāḍī—Amt.—बासेवाडी ..	NE;	8·0	0·9;	365;	74;	184	Alanganv;	2·0
Begampūrā—Acr.—बेगमपूरा ..	W;	0·1	1·1;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Beḷaj—Acr.—बेळज ..	SE;	7·0	1·2;	858;	173;	373	Local;	..
Belakheḍ—Msi.—बेलखेड ..	E;	31·0	0·8;	13;	3;	6	Ekadara;	2·0
Belakheḍā—Acr.—बेलखेडा ..	N;	7·0	1·2;	485;	100;	280	Paratvada;	5·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Katol;	15·0	Jalalkheda;	3·4; Mon; Fri.	..	..	W; w.	3 Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Achalpur;	9·0	Gaulkheda;	3·0; Tue.	..	..	..	..
Badnera (Urban);	1·0	Badnera (Urban);	1·0; Mon; Fri.	Badnera (Urban);	1·0	W.	..
Local;	..	Local;	.. Mon; Fri.	Local;	..	W; tl; pl.	6 Sl (3 pr, 3 h); 2 Cs; mun; 15 tl. 3 mq; dg; 2 dh; gym; lib; 13 dp.
..	..	Katkumbha;	1·0; Thu.	..	..	..	..
Dipori;	1·0	Chandur;	5·0; Sun.	..	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m.
Chandur;	7·0	Local;	.. ..	..	6·0	..	Cs; 2 tl; m.
Pandurana;	28·0	Jarud;	2·0; Sun.	Jarud;	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kurum;	3·0	Ganoja;	1·0; Thu.	Bopi;	6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Anjanganv;	16·0	Anjanganv;	16·0; Mon.	..	..	..	..
Takali;	1·0	Badnera;	5·0; Mon.	..	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	tl.
Amravati;	16·0	Dhanori;	2·0; Sun.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tukaithad;	40·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Dharni;	20·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl, mq; ch; lib; dp.
Kushta Bk.;	3·0	Raseganv;	.. Tue	Achalpur;	8·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
..	..	..	. ..	..	..	..	..
..	.	..	.. ..	..	.	..	..
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
Takali;	4·0	Loni;	2·0; Sat.	Local;	0·2	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pandurana;	34·0	Benoda;	4·0; Sat.	Local,	.	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Tukaithad;	16·0	Dharni;	6·0; Fri	..	2·0	W; n.	
Amravati;	20·0	Talavel;	0·4, Fri.	..	1·7	W; w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Dhamanganv;	11·0	Chinchapur;	0·1; Sat.	..	5·0	rv.	tl.
Amravati;	24·0	Rithapur;	2·0; Tue.	Rithapur;	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Tukaithad;	28·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Dharni;	8·0	W.	Cs.
Chandur;	4·0	Chandur;	4·0; Sun.	..	0·2	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tukaithad;	20·0	Dharni;	1·4; Fri.	Dharni;	1·0	W.	..
Badnera;	8·0	Bhatakuli;	2·0; Fri.	Nimbha;	0·6	W.	Sl (pr); Khandoba Fr. Ps. Vad. 6; 2 tl.
..	..	..	.. .	..	..	..	..
Achalpur;	6·0	Local;	.. Sun.	..	1·2	W; w.	Sl (m); Cs (c); tl.
Katol;	17·4	Jalalkheda;	3·4; Fri; Mon.	Amaner;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dg.
Achalpur;	7·0	Paratvada;	5·0; Thu.	..	6·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Belakheḍā—Acr.—बेलखेडा ..	NE;	21·0	1·1;	155;	31;	69	Vani;	0·4
Belamaṇḍalī—Acr.—बेलमंडळी ..	NE;	24·0	0·9;	486;	103;	248	Ghataladaki;	0·2
Belonā—Msi.—बेलोना ..	NE;	8·0	2·1;	56;	11;	23	Hivarkhed;	2·0
Belorā—Cdr.—बेलोरा ..	S;	17·0	2·6;	784;	179;	345	Dhamak;	0·2
Belorā—Dyr.—बेलोरा ..	SW;	12·0	2·9;	528;	101;	197	Nalvada;	0·4
Belorā—Msi.—बेलोरा ..	SW;	19·0	4·9;	1897;	454;	838	Local;	..
Belorā Hirāpūr—Amt.—बेलोरा हिरापूर.	N;	9·0	1·9;	357;	78;	143	Dabha;	2·0
Belūr—Msi.—बेलूर ..	..	25·0	1·3;	474;	106;	204	Loni;	2·0
Belūrā—Acr.—बेलूरा ..	E;	10·0	1·4;	109;	23;	68	Tulajapur Gadhi;	0·1
Bembaḷā Bk.—Dyr.—बेंबळा बु. ..	NE;	14·0	2·0;	595;	114;	244	Khallar;	0·4
Bembaḷā Kh.—Dyr.—बेंबळा खु. ..	NE;	14·0	1·7;	272;	50;	122	Khallar;	1·0
Beṇī—Acr.—बेणी ..	W;	6·0	0·4;	12;	5;	9	Paratvada;	4·0
Benoḍā—Amt.—बेनोडा ..	SE;	0·2	1·4;	287;	63;	130	Amravati;	1·0
Benoḍā—Msi.—बेनोडा ..	E;	16·0	5·8;	3837;	892;	1615	Local;	..
Beradā Balḍā—Mlg.—बेरदा बल्डा	S;	8·0	2·3;	317;	56;	180	Dharni;	10·0
Besakheḍā—Acr.—बेसखेडा ..	E;	74·0	1·0;	507;	113;	206	Kharala;	3·0
Besakheḍā—Msi.—बेसखेडा ..	N;	42·0	1·8;	558;	109;	323	Ekadara;	1·0
Bhagavānpūr—Amt.—भगवानपूर	N;	14·0	0·8;	58;	10;	25	Yawali;	1·0
Bhagurā—Amt.—भगुरा ..	S;	13·6	2·2;	425;	94;	232	Januna;	2·0
Bhālasī—Amt.—भालसी ..	W;	23·0	1·5;	337;	80;	172	Markanda;	2·0
Bhālevāḍī—Acr.—भालेवाडी ..	NE;	9·0	1·9;	2;	1;	..	..	..
Bhāloṇḍ—Msi.—भालोंड ..	W;	14·0	0·3;	2;	2;	2	..	..
Bhāmborā—Dyr.—भांबोरा ..	W;	8·0	0·6;	195;	37;	82	Arala;	1·0
Bhāmborā—Cdr.—भांबोरा ..	NE;	18·0	2·4;	424;	92;	183	..	..
Bhāmborā—Msi.—भांबोरा ..	S;	10·0	2·4;	472;	98;	243	Rajuravadi;	4·0
Bhāmod—Dyr.—भामोद ..	W;	9·0	5·8;	1057;	232;	504	Local;	..
Bhānagāṅv—Msi.—भानगांव ..	W;	18·0	0·4;	236;	67;	102	Belora (Majara);	..
Bhānakheḍā—Amt.—भानखेडा ..	E;	8·0	4·7;	334;	77;	165	Bhankheda Kh;	1·0
Bhānakheḍā—Amt.—भानखेडा ..	SE;	5·4	3·6;	493;	108;	245	Local;	..

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Achalpur;	22·0	Vani;	0·4; Tue.	..	7·0	W; w.	2 tl.
Achalpur;	26·0	Ghataladaki;	0·2; Sat.	..	10·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Amravati;	42·0	Hivarkhed;	2·0; Mon.	..	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur;	17·0	Dhamak;	0·2; Thu.	..	7·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 2 tl.
Kokarda;	7·0	Nalvada;	0·4; Tue.	..	4·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Amravati;	25·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Rithapur;	3·0	W.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); Cs; Datta Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 3 tl; m; mq; dg; dh; lib; 2 dp.
Badnera;	3·0	Badnera;	3·0; Mon.	Badnera; ..	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pandurana;	34·0	Loni;	2·0; Wed.	Benoda;	8·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Achalpur;	12·0	Tulajapur Gadhi;	0·1; Tue.	..	2·0	W; w.	tl
Kokarda;	8·0	Khallar;	0·4; Wed.	Stage;	0·6	rv; w.	Sl (pr); pyt; 3 tl; mq; lib.
Kokarda;	6·0	Khallar;	1·0; Wed.	Khallar;	0·4	rv; w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Achalpur;	6·0	Paratvada;	4·0; Thu.	Paratvada;	4·0	W.	..
Amravati;	1·0	Amravati;	1·0; Wed; Sun.	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Pandurana;	30·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W; rv.	3 Sl (pr,m,h); 2 Cs; Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; 2m; mq; gym; dp.
Tukaithad;	25·0	Baru;	3·0; Mon.	Bodfarm;	4·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Achalpur;	23·0	Chandur Bazar;	3·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar;	3·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl
Narkhed;	8·0	Mohad;	3·0; Wed.	Dhaga;	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	15·0	Yawali;	1·0; Fri.	..	1·0	W.	tl.
Badnera;	7·0	Mahuli Chor;	2·0; Tue.	..	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	18·0	Vathoda;	2·0; Mon.	..	6·0	rv; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
..	..	.. ..	..	..	0·2	W; w.	tl.
Amravati;	45·0	.. ..	..	..	..	W.	..
Banosa;	8·0	Banosa;	8·0; Thu.	Arala;	1·0	t.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
..	..	.. ..	..	Vathoda Kh.;	0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Amravati;	34·0	Rajuravadi;	4·0; Sat.	..	4·0	rv; W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Banosa;	10·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Yewda;	6·0	rv; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (fmg, c); Vitthal Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora (Majara);	.. Fri.	..	..	W.	..
Malkhed;	3·0	Malkhed;	3·0; Tue.	Pohara;	2·5	W; n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Anjangaav;	4·0	Amravati;	5·0; Sun.	Pohara;	4·0	str.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop.; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Bhaṇḍāraj—Dyr.—मंडारज ..	SE;	24·0	6·2;	1923;	402;	847	Local;	..
Bhaṇḍorā—Mlg.—मंडोरा ..	..	..	1·3;	297;	53;	161	..	..
Bhāpakī—Msi.—मापकी ..	E;	23·0	2·5;	321;	66;	158	Haturna;	2·0
Bhārasvāḍī—Cdr.—मारसवाडी ..	NE;	23·0	1·3;	143;	30;	69	Varkhed;	2·0
Bhāravāḍī—Cdr.—मारवाडी ..	NE;	28·2	1·4;	491;	106;	223	Varkhed;	2·0
Bhātakulī—Amt.—मातकुली ..	W;	10·0	15·1;	3912;	883;	1754	Local;	..
Bhātakulī—Cdr.—मातकुली ..	E;	24·0	1·9;	760;	191;	520	Local;	..
Bhavar—Mlg.—मवर ..	S;	19·0	2·9;	193;	34;	92	Sadrabadi;	8·0
Bhavasīṅgpūr—Msi.—मवसींगपूर	..	6·0	0·2;	16;	1;	..	Katapur;	..
Bhemaḍī—Msi.—मेमडी ..	W;	30·0	4·6;	343;	67;	199	Tembhur-kheda;	1·0
Bhilakheḍā—Dyr.—मिलखेडा ..	NW;	22·0	0·5;	9;	1;	2	Anjanganv;	6·0
Bhilakheḍā—Mlg.—मिलखेडा ..	..	..	1·2;	132;	25;	64	Gaulkheda;	4·0
Bhilāpūr—Msi.—मिलापूर ..	SW;	15·0	1·5;	469;	115;	195	..	..
Bhilonā—Acr.—मिलोना ..	NW;	7·0	1·9;	616;	135;	266	Local,	..
Bhillī—Cdr.—मिल्ली ..	E;	13·0	1·4;	339;	79;	201	Dattapur Dhamanganv;	2·0
Bhilṭek—Cdr.—मिलटेक ..	SW;	6·3	2·3;	305;	58;	135	Palaskhed;	2·0
Bhivakuṇḍī—Msi.—मिवकुंडी ..	N;	6·0	1·1;	29;	7;	16	Morshi;	5·0
Bhivāpūr—Cdr.—मिवापूर ..	N;	8·0	5·0;	653;	167;	365	Chandur;	9·0
Bhokarabarḍī—Mlg.—मोकरबर्डी	W;	8·0	2·6;	553;	102;	313	Kalamkhar;	5·0
Bhokarī—Dyr.—मोकरी ..	W;	24·0	0·7;	66;	14;	35	Sateganv;	2·0
Bhūgāṅv—Acr.—मूगांव ..	SE;	5·0	3·2;	1135;	226;	459	Local;	..
Bhūīkheḍ—Dyr.—मूईखेड ..	W;	12·0	1·3;	172;	30;	61	Ramtirth;	3·0
Bhujavāḍā—Dyr.—मुजवाडा ..	E;	6·0	1·5;	170;	39;	94	Kalashi;	2·0
Bhulorī—Mlg.—भुलोरी ..	SE;	12·0	2·1;	48;	6;	30	Dharni;	9·0
Bhurasakheḍā—Dyr.—मुरसखेडा	NW;	20·0	1·1;	77;	14;	35	Kalgavhan;	2·0
Bhuras Rāmagaḍ—Dyr.—मुरस रामागड ..	W;	6·2	0·7;	204;	37;	97	Yewda;	3·0
Bibāmal—Mlg.—बिबामल ..	NE;	13·0	3·6;	262;	43;	141	Sadrabadi;	5·0
Bobaḍo—Mlg.—बोबदो ..	S;	6·0	2·6;	561;	102;	269	Dharni;	6·0
Boḍ—Mlg.—बोड ..	S;	8·0	1·9;	200;	34;	128	Bodfarm;	2·0
Boḍaḍ—Acr.—बोवड ..	NE;	11·0	1·7;	206;	44;	91	Karanja Bahiram;	1·0

Railway Station; Distance.	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
.. 7·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W; w	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 Cs (c); Pandurang Fr. Kt. Sud. 15; 4 tl; mq; lib; dp.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Pandurana; 35·0	Rajura; 8·0; Thu.	.. ..	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Arvi; 8·0	Shendurjana; 5·0; Tue.	Vethoda; 4·0	W.	tl.
Chandur; 30·0	Shendurjana; 5·0; Tue.	.. 5·4	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Kurum; 5·0	Local; .. Fri.	Local; 0·½	W; rv.	5 Sl (3 pr, m, h); Cs; Jain Fr. Kt. Sud. 5; 11 tl; m; mq; dg; 2 gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Dhamanganv; 7·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 5·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Dhulghat; 8·0	Susarda; 3·0; Wed.	Dhavti; 8·0	rv.	tl.
Amravati; 30·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Mulatai; 21·0	Shendurjana; 3·0; Fri.	Tivasa; 4·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Vitthal Fr. Kt. Sud. 11; tl.
Anjanganv; 6·0	Anjanganv; 6·0; Mon.	Anjanganv; 4·0	W; w.	..
Pathrot; 6·0	Gaulakheda; 4·0; Tue.	.. ..	..	..
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 3·0	W; w.	Sl (Pr); Cs (c); tl.
Kashta Patali; 2·0	Vadganv; 3·0; Sun.	Paretvada; 5·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; gym.
Dhamanganv; 2·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Sun.	Dattapur; 2·0	W.	tl.
Chandur; 6·0	Rajura; 3·0; Tue.	.. 6·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch.
Amravati; 39·0	Morshi; 4·0; Tue	Morshi; 6·0	W; w.	ch.
Chandur; 9·0	Kurha; 5·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; m; dg; 2 gym.
Tukaithad, 15·0	Dedtalai; 2·0; Sun.	Dedtalai; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Anjanganv; 6·0	Sateganv; 2·0, Sun	.. 2·0	W; w	tl.
Achalpur; 5·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	rv; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 4 tl; lib.
Kinkhed; 10·0	Karatkhed; 2·0; Tue.	Dahikhanda; 3·4	rv; w	..
Bhujavada; 1·0	.. 2·0, Mon.	. 2·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Tukaithad; 29·0	Baru; 5·0; Mon.	Bod; 4·0	W.	..
Anjanganv; 13·0	Kalguvhan; 2·0; Thu.	.. 2·0	W; n	Cs, Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
Banosa; 6·0	Yewda; 3·0; Wed	.. 0·4	t.	tl.
Tukaithad; 16·0	Dedtalai; 8·0; Sun.	Dharni; 13·0	W; n.	..
Tukaithad; 16·0	Dharni; 6·0; Fri.	Dharni; 6·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tukaithad; 18·0	Dharni; 7·0; Fri.	Bodform; 2·0	W.	Cs, tl, ch.
Achalpur; 12·0	Shirajganv Kasaba; 4·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Bodaṇā—Amt.—बोडणा	E;	11·0	3·2;	368;	86;	188	Mardi;	3·0
Bodaṇā—Msi.—बोडणा	W;	10·0	1·3;	277;	70;	167	Khanapur;	3·0
Bokūrakheḍā—Amt.—बोकूरखेडा	N;	16·0	0·4;	203;	41;	120	Dhamori;	2·0
Bopalavāḍī—Msi.—बोपलवाडी	N;	7·0	1·9;	6;	2;	2	..	..
Bopāpūr—Acr.—बोपापूर	NW;	9·0	0·8;	77;	19;	43	Dhamanganv;	2·4
Bopāpūr—Acr.—बोपापूर	S;	5·0	2·6;	1139;	239;	542	Local;	..
Boragāṅv—Amt.—बोरगांव	N;	6·0	1·1;	899;	203;	389	Rahatganv;	2·6
Boragāṅv—Amt.—बोरगांव	SE;	7·0	1·5;	206;	46;	104	Uttamsara;	1·0
Boragāṅv Ambāḍā—Dyr.—बोरगांव अंबाडा.	N;	14·0	1·0;	146;	34;	72	Kapus Talani;	0·2
Boragāṅv Dhāṇde—Cdr.—बोरगांव धांदे.	E;	17·0	2·9;	876;	196;	441	Dahiganv Dhande;	3·0
Boragāṅv Dorī—Acr.—बोरगांव दोरी.	S;	7·0	2·2;	648;	128;	350	Borganv Peth;	2·0
Boragāṅv Mohanā—Acr.—बोरगांव मोहना.	E;	9·0	2·9;	645;	126;	257	Belaj;	2·0
Boragāṅv Nistāne—Cdr.—बोरगांव निस्ताने.	E;	23·0	2·2;	640;	143;	331	Jhada;	1·0
Boragāṅv Peṭh—Acr.—बोरगांव पेठ.	SE;	8·0	0·4;	1043;	237;	429	Local;	..
Boragāṅv Taḷaṇī—Acr.—बोरगांव तळणी.	S;	8·0	2·0;	176;	31;	55	Borganv Peth;	2·0
Boraj—Acr.—बोरज	E;	20·0	2·3;	204;	45;	102	Chandur Bazar;	2·0
Borakhaḍī—Amt.—बोरखडी	W;	16·0	2·2;	1104;	238;	598	Local;	..
Borakhaḍī—Amt.—बोरखडी	W;	14·0	1·6;	85;	17;	51	Hartala;	1·0
Borāḷā—Acr.—बोराळा	E;	23·0	1·8;	1038;	219;	439	Kharala;	1·4
Borāḷā—Dyr.—बोराळा	S;	22·0	1·0;	513;	111;	256	Arala;	1·0
Borāḷā—Dyr.—बोराळा	E;	8·0	2·5;	505;	108;	222	Daneganv;	1·0
Borāḷā—Mlg.—बोराळा	..	..	2·4;	438;	82;	195	Gaulkheda;	4·0
Boravaghaḷ—Cdr.—बोरवघळ	E;	23.0	1.4;	353;	85;	176	Jalaka Patache;	2·0
Borḍī—Acr.—बोर्डी	S;	6·0	1·4;	662;	145;	348	Bopapur;	2·0
Borḍā—Cdr.—बोर्डा	NE;	15·0	3·3;	691;	164;	364	Anjansingi;	2·0
Borī—Cdr.—बोरी	S;	11·0	3·8;	1049;	235;	560	Javala;	1·0
Brāhmaṇavāḍā—Dyr.—ब्राह्मणवाडा.	S;	9·0	0·7;	260;	57;	113	Kokarda;	0·1

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Amravati;	10·0	Pimpalkhuta;	1·0; Wed.	Pohara;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
..	..	Morshi;	6·0; Tue.	..	..	W; w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	16·0	Dhamori;	2·0; Sun.	Dhamori;	2.0	W.	tl.
Pandurana;	42·0	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	tl.
Paratvada;	9·4	Dhamanganv;	2·4; Wed.	..	9·0	rv.	Cs; tl.
Chamak Bk.;	2·0	Achalpur;	6·0; Sun.	Achalpur;	4·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (fmg); 6 tl.
Amravati;	6·0	Amravati;	6·0; Sun; Wed.	Stage;	0·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs.; tl; lib; dp.
Badnera;	4·0	Badnera;	4·0; Mon; Fri.	Badnera;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kapus Talani;	1·0	Kapus Talani;	0·4; Tue.	..	6·0	W; w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Pulganv;	3·0	Pulganv;	4·0; Mon.	..	..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; m.
Chamak Bk.;	4·0	Borganv Peth;	2·0; Thu.	Menganathpur;	2·0	rv; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Achalpur;	11·0	Tulajapur Gadhi;	2·0; Tue.	Taleganv (Fazalpur);	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl; lib; dp.
Virul;	3·0	Mangrul Dastagir;	4·0; Wed.	Virul;	3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Achalpur;	9·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Menganathpur;	1·0	rv; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 10 tl.
Achalpur;	10·0	Borganv Peth;	1·0; Thu.	..	1·0	rv; w.	Cs; 2 tl; dh.
Amravati;	25·0	Chandur Bazar;	2·0; Sun.	..	7·0	n; W. w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati	17·0	Mhaispur;	1·0; ..	.	1·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Amravati;	23·0	Darapur;	4·0, Fri.	Kholapur;	3·0	W.	tl.
Amravati;	20·0	Chandur Bazar;	4·0; Sun.	..	4·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; dp.
Banosa;	8·0	Local;	. Wed.	..	2·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Pathrot;	1·4	Arjanganv;	4·0; Mon.	..	0·4	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Pathrot;	6·0	Gaulkheda;	4·0; Tue	..	..	..	..
Dhamanganv;	7·0	Jalaka Patache;	2·0; Tue.	..	3·0	W.	2 tl.
Chamak Bk.;	2·0	Raseganv;	2·0; Tue.	Achalpur;	6·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Dhamanganv;	12·0	Anjansingi;	2·0; Sun.	Anjansingi;	2·0	W w.	Sl (pr): Cs; 2 tl.
Chandur;	10·0	Local;	.. Tue.	..	6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; gym; lib.
Kokarda;	2·0	Kokarda;	0·1; Fri.	..	..	W; rv.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name.	Direction ; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists.	Post Office ; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Brāhmaṇavāḍā-Msi.-ब्राह्मणवाडा	SW; 23·0	1·5; 391; 85; 184	Rithapur; 1·4
Brāhmaṇavāḍā Bhagat—Amt.—ब्राह्मणवाडा भगत.	N; 15·0	2·2; 726; 167; 328	Antora; 0·4
Brāhmaṇvāḍā Thaḍī—Acr.—ब्राह्मणवाडा थडी .	NE; 18·0	3·5; 5490; 1141; 2076	Local; ..
Brāhmaṇavāḍā Govindpūr—Amt, ब्राह्मणवाडा गोविंदपूर .	N; 21·0	2·9; 1109; 235; 547	Local; ..
Brāhmaṇavāḍā Pāṭhak—Acr.—.. ब्राह्मणवाडा पाठक.	E; 23·4	2·7; 581; 132; 254	Sonori; 0·6
Brahmī—Cdr.—ब्रह्मी ..	.. ..	1·4; 18; 5; 8	.. ..
Budhalī—Cdr.—बुधली ..	W; 8·0	0·9; 61; 19; 26	Kavatha; 1·0
Buraḍaghāṭ—Acr.—बुरडघाट ..	N; 6.4	0·5; 242; 48; 115	Paratvada; 5·0
Cācoṇḍī—Acr.—चाचोंडी ..	SW; 7·0	1·0; 85; 19; 36	Chamak Bk.; 2·0
Cākardā—Mlg.—चाकर्दा ..	N; 10·0	4·0; 525; 11; 283	Dharni; 10·0
Cākūr—Amt.—चाकूर ..	N; 18·0	0·9; 246; 49; 132	Bhatkuli; 2·0
Cākūr—Amt.—चाकूर ..	SW; 12·0	0·8; 173; 41; 92	Dhanora Phasi; 1·0
Camak Bk.—Acr.—चमक बु. ..	SW; 6·0	0·7; 469; 111; 215	Local; ..
Camak Kh.—Acr.—चमक खु. ..	SW; 6·0	0·1; 555; 106; 265	Chamak Bk.; 0·1
Cāndakheḍ—Dyr.—चांदखेड ..	W; 11·0	0·8; 152; 32; 64	Bhamod; 1·4
Cāndapūr—Mlg.—चांदपूर ..	.. ..	1·9; 300; 55; 181	.. ..
Cāndas—Msi.—चांदस ..	E; 28·0	1·8; 994; 211; 477	Local; ..
Cāndasūrā—Amt.—चांदसूरा ..	S; 13·0	1·7; 500; 114; 237	Januna; 2·0
Cāndhaī—Dyr.—चांधई ..	W; 12·0	1·2; 157; 34; 60	Nalvada; 2·0
Cāṇḍolā—Dyr.—चांडोळा ..	SW; 14·0	2·1; 479; 110; 269	Bhamod; 5·0
Cāndūr—Amt.—चांदूर ..	W; 5·0	2·2; 353; 92; 223	.. ..
Cāndūr (Urban Area)—Cdr.—चांदूर (नागरी विभाग).	HQ; ..	8·0; 9348; 2067; 2224	Local; ..
Cāndūr (Rural Area)—Cdr.— .. चांदूर (ग्रामीण विभाग).	.. ..	8·0; 136; 30; 7	.. ..
Cāndūr—Dyr.—चांदूर ..	N; 0·4	1·0; 154; 34; 82	Daryapur; 1·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Amravati	36·0	Rithapur;	1·4; Tue.	Local;	0·1	W; w.	Sl (pr).
Amravati;	15 0	Antora;	0·4; Tue.	Yavalī;	3·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m.
Achalpur;	19·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	4·0	W; w.	4 Sl (pr, 2 m, h); 2 Cs (mp, c); Gangamai Fr. Ps; 17 tl; 3 mq; 2 dg; gym; 2 lib; 3 dp.
Amravati;	21·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Karajganv;	3·0	W; w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Amravati;	27·0	Chandur Bazar;	4·0; Sun.	..	4·0	W; w	Sl (pr); 5 tl dg.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
Malkhed;	3·0	Kavatha;	1·0; ..	..	8·0	W.	tl.
Achalpur;	6·0	Paratvada;	5·0; Thu.	..	0·½	W.	..
Kushta Bk.;	1·0	Chamak Bk.;	. Fri.	Achalpur;	7·0	rv;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Tukaithad;	25·0	Dharni;	10·0; Fri.	Durna;	3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; ch; lib; dp.
Takali;	5·0	Bhatkuli;	2·0; Fri.	Vadganv,	..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl
Badnera;	12·0	Dhanora Phasi	1·0; Thu.	..	2·0	rv,w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Local;	..	Local;	.. Fri.	Achalpur;	6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs (c); 2 tl; lib.
Chamak Bk.	0·6	Chamak Bk.;	0·1; Fri.	Achalpur,	6·0	W;w	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Nagobua Fr. Srn. Sud. 5; tl; lib; dp.
Daryapur;	11·0	Lotvada;	1·0; Tue.	Dahihanda;	4·0	rv.	Sl (pr)
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
Narkhed;	12·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; gym; 2 lib; dp.
Badnera;	7·0	Mahuli Chor;	3·0; Tue	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kokarda;	8·0	Nalvada;	2·0; Tue.	..	4·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kinkhed;	8·0	Dahihanda;	1·0; Sat.	Dahihanda,	1·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2 tl.
..	..	..	. ..	.	.	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Local;	..	Local;	. Sun.	Local;	..	W;w.	7 Sl (5 pr, 2 h); 6 Cs (1 fmg, c); Mahashivratra Fr; 3 mq; dh; ch; lib; 7 dp; Cch.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
Banosa;	1·0	Banosa;	1·0; Thu.	Daryapur;	1·0	rv.	tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Cāndūr Bāzār (Urban Area)—Acr.—चांदूर बाजार (नागरी विभाग).	E;	18·0	4·0;	6947;	1450;	1508	Local;	..
Cāndūr Ḍhore—Cdr.—चांदूर ढोरे. ..	NE;	28·2	1·8;	291;	62;	139	Varkhed;	4·0
Cāndurā Jahāgīr—Acr.—चांदूरा जहागीर. ..	NW;	6·0	0·5;	47;	10;	24	Vadganv;	3·0
Cāndūrakheḍā—Cdr.—चांदूरखेडा	S;	13·4	0·6;	64;	16;	38	Yerad;	2·0
Cāṅgāpūr—Amt.—चांगापूर ..	W;	5·0	1·2;	12;	4;	6	Amravati;	4·0
Canuṣṭā—Cdr.—चनुष्टा ..	NE;	14·0	1·9;	598;	138;	316	Anjanvati;	2·0
Caṭavāboḍ—Mlg.—चटवाबोड ..	N;	10·0	2·5;	345;	68;	179	Dharni;	9·0
Causāḷā—Acr.—चौसाळा ..	S;	8·0	2·0;	361;	50;	183	Raseganv ;	1·0
Causāḷā—Dyr.—चौसाळा ..	NW;	24·0	2·6;	1665;	366;	706	Local;	..
Cecaravāḍī—Amt.—चेचरवाडी ..	E;	12·0	1·4;	311;	67;	179	Mhaispur;	2·0
Ceṇḍakāpūr—Dyr.—चेंडकापूर ..	E;	16·0	5·8;	3140;	695;	1256	Local;	..
Ceṇḍo—Mlg.—चेंडो ..	SW;	30·0	3·3;	258;	58;	118	Dharni;	25·0
Ciñcaghāṭ—Mlg.—चिंचघाट ..	W;	7·0	2·5;	361;	67;	238	Dharni;	6·0
Ciñcakheḍā—Mlg.—चिंचखेडा ..	..	..	1·3;	139;	32;	55	Chikhaldara;	11·0
Cikhalā Sāṅgavī—Msi—चिखला सांगवी.	..	7·2	2·6;	738;	184;	402	Khanapur;	0·7
Cikhaldarā (Urban Area)—Mlg. चिखलदरा (नागरी विभाग).	..	..	..	1338;	..	..	Local,	..
Cikhalī—Acr—चिखली ..	E;	2·0	0·7;	45;	10;	8	Paratvada;	2·0
Cikhalī—Cdr—चिखली ..	SE;	12·0	1·9;	218;	45;	101	Mardi;	2·0
Cikhalī Vaidya—Amt.—चिखली वैद्य.	E;	28·0	0·9;	456;	115;	208	Local;	..
Ciñcakheḍ—Amt.—चिंचखेड ..	N;	16·0	1·8;	520;	117;	264	Davarganv;	1·0
Ciñcakumbha—Acr.—चिंचकुंभ ..	NE;	28·0	0·4;	235;	46;	158	Chandur Bazar;	14·0
Ciñcapūr—Cdr.—चिंचपूर ..	SE;	23·0	2·1;	703;	164;	356	Pimpalkhuta;	2·0
Ciñcolī—Cdr.—चिंचोली ..	E;	21·0	2·8;	1485;	340;	718	Local;	..
Ciñcolī—Msi.—चिंचोली ..	SW;	24·3	2·9;	780;	190;	366	Shirala;	2·0
Ciñcolī—Msi.—चिंचोली ..	W;	6·0	4·3;	1220;	303;	585	Khanapur;	3·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Amravati;	23·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	..	W;w.	10 SI (4 pr, 4 m, 2 h); 3 Cs (c, fmg); Mahanubhav Fr. Asd. Vad. 11; 10 tl; 3 m; 4 mq; 2 dg; dh; gym; 2 lib; 8 dp (1 vet).
Chandur;	29·0	Shendurjana;	7·0; Tue.	Varkhed;	1·4	W;rv	SI (pr); tl.
Paratvada ;	6·0	Vadganv;	3·0; Sun.	Vadganv;	3·0	W;w.	..
Chandur;	14·0	Yerad;	2·0; Fri.	Shivani Rasulapur;	8·0	n.	tl.
Amravati;	4·0	Amravati;	4·0; Sun.	..	..	W.	tl; dh.
Chandur;	14·0	Kurha;	3·0; Thu.	Kurha;	2·0	W.	SI (pr); pyt; tl.
Tukaithad;	29·0	Dharni;	9·0; Fri.	Dharni;	10·0	W.	SI (pr).
Kushta Bk.;	3·0	Raseganv;	.. Tue.	Achalpur;	8·0	rv;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 3 tl; ch.
Anjanganv;	6·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	1·0	W;w.	2 SI (pr, m); 4 Cs (fmg, 3 mis); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9, 7 tl; 2 lib; dp.
Amravati;	14·0	Dhamori;	2·0; Sun.	Dhamori,	2·0	W;t.	tl.
Banosa;	14·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	..	rv;w.	2 SI (pr, m); 3 tl; mq; gym; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Dhulghat;	3·0	Raytalai;	7·0; Sat.	Tukaithad;	..	rv.	
Tukaithad;	12·0	Dharni;	6·0; Fri	Dharni;	6·0	W;n	tl.
Achalpur;	16·0	Paratvada;	16·0; Thu.	..	..	..	
Amravati;	40·0	Khanapur;	0·7; Thu	..	..	W;w.	SI (pr); pyt; 4 tl; m; gym; lib.
Achalpur;	..	Local;	.. ..	Local;	.	W; w.	..
Paratvada;	2·0	Paratvada;	2·0; Thu.	..	..	W	
Chandur;	12·0	Mardi;	2·0; Sat	Savardi;	6·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Badnera;	24·0	..	0·4; Sun.	..	2·0	W.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; tl; lib.
Amravati;	16·0	Davarganv;	1·0; Sun.	Local;	0·4	W.	SI (pr); 2tl
Achalpur;	28·0	Chandur Bazar;	14·0; Sun.	..	14·0	rv;w	SI (pr); tl.
Dhamanganv;	11·0	Local;	. Sat.	..	5·0	w;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs (gr); 4tl; lib.
Pulganv;	4·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	4·0	W.	2SI (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; gym.
Amravati;	25·0	Shirala;	2·0; Sat	..	4·0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs (c); 2tl.
Amravati;	40·0	Morshi;	6·0; Tue.	.	..	W.	SI (h); 3 tl; 2 dg; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Ciñcolī Bk.—Acr.—चिंचोली बु. ..	NE; 18·0	1·4; 269; 58; 97	Brahmanvada Thadi; 0·4
Ciñcolī Bk.—Dyr.—चिंचोली बु. ..	NE; 14·0	5·0; 1494; 324; 649	Local; ..
Ciñcolī Bk.—Dyr.—चिंचोली बु. ..	N; 16·0	3·2; 722; 150; 306	Kamalpur; 2·0
Ciñcolī Kh.—Acr.—चिंचोली खु. ..	SE, 12·0	0·7; 187; 39; 110	Talani; 0·4
Ciñcolī Kh.—Dyr.—चिंचोली खु. ..	SE; 14·0	1·7; 552; 114; 212	Chincholi Bk; 0·2
Ciñconā—Dyr.—चिंचोना ..	NW; 18·4	8·9; 127; 30; 96	Nimkhed Bazar; 2·0
Cipolī—Mlg.—चिपोली ..	E; 13·0	1·4; 118; 21; 48	Dharni; 12·0
Cirgavhāṇ—Msi.—चिरगव्हाण ..	S; 10·0	2·0; 693; 153; 310	Pavani; 2·0
Ciroḍī—Cdr.—चिरोडी ..	W; 6·0	5·3; 330; 71; 177	Chandur Railway; 6·0
Cauryāmal—Mlg.—चौऱ्यामल ..	.. ..	2·7; 129; 25; 77	.. ..
Curnī—Mlg.—चुर्नी ..	.. ..	2·2; 683; 121; 319	Local; ..
Cutīyā—Mlg.—चुतीया ..	S; 4·0	1·1; 112; 22; 66	Dharni; 5·0
Dābakā—Mlg.—दाबका ..	SW; 24·0	2·7; 406; 100; 174	Dharni; 20·0
Dābhā—Amt.—दाभा ..	S; 8·0	3·4; 1189; 265; 512	Local; ..
Dābhāḍā—Cdr.—दाभाडा ..	E; 14·0	3·3; 761; 163; 423	Kavali; 2·0
Dābherī—Msi.—दाभेरी ..	SE; 18·0	2·0; 598; 140; 288	Rithapur; 2·0
Dābikā—Mlg.—दाबिका ..	SW; 6·0	2·3; 817; 150; 442	Kalamkhar; 3·0
Dādāpūr—Amt.—दादापूर ..	SE; 16·0	1·2; 114; 26; 70	Manjari Mhasla; 2·0
Dāḍhī—Amt.—दाढी ..	SW; 16·0	3·1; 1201; 257; 518	Local; ..
Dagaḍāgaḍ—Amt.—दगडागड ..	NW; 13·0	1·5; 140; 25; 79	Vayganv; 0·4
Dahasūr—Msi.—दहसूर ..	E; 14·0	2·3; 199; 50; 125	Ambada; 4·0
Dahendā—Mlg.—दहेंदा ..	W; 3·0	2·0; 374; 64; 214	Dharni; 3·0
Dahendrī—Mlg.—दहेंद्री ..	.. ..	3·2; 599; 105; 318	.. ..
Dahīgānv—Amt.—दहीगांव ..	N; 16·0	3·9; 804; 189; 399	Phul Amla; 1·4
Dahigānv—Cdr.—दहिगांव ..	SW; 6·0	3·5; 626; 165; 349	Kavatha; 2·0
Dahigānv Bk.—Dyr.—दहिगांव बु.	N; 24·0	1·0; 397; 85; 155	Local; ..
Dahigānv Kh.—Dyr.—दहिगांव खु.	N; 24·0	1·0; 505; 99; 243	Local; ..
Dānāpūr—Cdr.—दानापूर ..	S; 10·0	2·0; 90; 19; 45	Nimagavhan; 2·0
Dhanoḍī—Msi.—धनोडी ..	NE; 24·0	2·1; 984, 232; 516	Varud; 3·0
Dāporī—Msi.—दापोरी ..	NE; 5·0	2·4; 1291; 295; 610	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Achalpur; 17·0	Brahmanvada Thadi; 0·4; Thu.	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; 2 dg.
Kapus Talani; 3·0	Local; .. Wed.	Anjanganv; 8·0	rv;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; 2 Cs (c, fmg); 6tl, m; lib; dp.
Kapus Talani; 5·0	Kapus Talani; 4·0; Tue.	.. 10·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Achalpur; 10·0	Dahiganv; 2·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); 3tl; ch.
Kapus Talani; 5·0	Chincholi Bk.; 0·2; Wed.	Anjanganv; 8·0	rv;W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Anjanganv; 9·0	Nimkhed Bazar; 2·0; Sat.	.. 6·0	W;w.	tl.
Tukaithad; 27·0	Dharni; 12·0; Fri.	Durne; 5·0	W;rv.	tl
Narkhed; 16·0	Rajura Bazar; 1·0; Thu.	.. 2·0	rv;w.	2Sl (pr, m); Cs(c); 2tl; ch.
Chandur Railway; 6.0	Chandur Railway; 6·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..	. .. ..	.. .	..	
Achalpur; 51·0	Bhijadarya; 14·0; Sat.	.. ..	..	
Tukaithad; 25·0	Dharni; 5·0; Fri.	Dharni; 4·0	rv.	
Tukaithad; 5·0	Raytalai; 5·0; Sat.	Tukaithad; 5·0	rv.	
Badnera; 1·0	Badnera; 1·0; Mon	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; lib.
Dhamanganv; 4·0	Dhamanganv; 4·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 3 tl.
Amravati 34·0	Rithapur; 2·0; Tue.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud 15; 2tl; ch.
Tukaithad; 13·0	Kalamkhar; 3·0; Sat.	Kalamkhar; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkhed; 4·0	Manjari Mhasla; 2·0; Wed.	. 6·0	W.	tl.
Kurum; 1·0	Local; .. Mon.	Bopi; 5·0	W,rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (c); 3 tl; dh; lib; dp.
Amravati; 12·0	Khar Taleganv; 2·0; Tue.	Khar Taleganv; 2·0	W;t	
Amravati; 44·0	Ambada; 4·0; Fri.	Morshi; 14·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Tukaithad; 16·0	Dharni; 3·0; Fri	Dharni; 0·2	w	Sl (pr).
.. ..	.. .. .	.. ..		
Kurum; 3·0	Local; .. Tue.	Bopnermatabad; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Malkhed; 3·0	Malkhed; 2·0; Tue.	. 3·0	W	Sl (pr); pyt; 3 tl; lib.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Anjanganv; 5·0 Mon	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs (c); tl.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Anjanganv; 5·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	W;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Chandur Railway. 9·0	Ghuikhed; .. Wed.	.. 14·0	W;rv.	tl.
Pandurana; 19·0	Varud; 2·0; Wed	. 2·0	W;w	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dh.
Amravati; 38·0	Hivarkhed; 1·0; Mon.	Stage; 0·3	rv;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; 5 Cs. (c); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 4 tl; m; gym.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Dāpūrī Kh.—Cdr.—दापूरी खु. ..	N; 27·0	1·5; 640; 141; 356	Javara; 3·0
Daryābād—Acr.—दर्याबाद ..	NW; 6·0	0·9; 382; 95; 155	Paratvada; 6·0
Daryābād—Amt. दर्याबाद ..	NW; 13·0	1·1; 179; 36; 86	Hirapur; 1·4
Daryāpūr—Msi —दर्यापूर ..	SW; 0·2	0·9; 14; 5; 9	Shirakhed; 1·0
Daryāpūr Banosā (Urban Area)—Dyr.—दर्यापूर बनोसा (नागरी विभाग).	HQ; ..	1·0; 15182; 3260; 3372	Local; ..
Daryāpūr Banosā—Dyr.—दर्यापूर बनोसा.	.. ..	.. 38; 11; 13	.. ..
Dastāpūr—Amt.—दस्तापूर ..	NE; 25·0	1·0; 120; 33; 64	Brahmanvada Govindpur; 1·0
Dasturāpūr—Amt.— दस्तुरापूर ..	N; 23·0	0·3; 171; 44; 65	Takarkheda; 0·½
Dattāpūr—Acr.—दत्तापूर ..	SE; 14·0	0·8; 13; 6; 7	Sirajganv Band; 2·0
Dattāpūr—Cdr.—दत्तापूर ..	.. ..	Included in Urban Area II	..
Dattāpūr—Cdr.—दत्तापूर ..	.. ..	3·8; 44; 14; 24	.. ..
Dattāpūr Dhāmaṇgāṅv (Urban Area)—Cdr.—दत्तापूर धामणगांव (नागरी विभाग).	E; 11·0	4·2; 12261; 2692; 1169	Local; ..
Dattāpūr Dhāmaṇgāṅv (Rural Area).—Cdr.—दत्तापूर धामणगांव (ग्रामीण विभाग)	. ..	4·1; 1651; 392; 851	Dattapur Dhamanganv (Urban Area); ..
Dāutapūr—Amt —दाउतपूर ..	SW; 12·0	1·3; 217; 51; 110	Ganoja; 1·0
Ḍavaragāṅv—Amt —डवरगांव ..	N; 15·0	4·4; 1030; 226; 522	Local; ..
Ḍavaragāṅv—Msi —डवरगांव ..	W; 24·0	1·1; 136; 28; 67	Mangaruli; 2·0
Dāyavāḍī—Msi.—दायवाडी ..	E; 25·0	0·7; 5; 2; 2	Tembhurkheda; 1·0
Degāṅv—Amt. —देगाव ..	NE; 7·0	1·4; 15; 3; 1	Nandganv Peth, 1·0
Deguḷakheḍā—Amt.—देगुळखेडा ..	W; 23·0	0·6; 88; 18; 56	Kholapur; 3·0
Ḍehaṇī—Cdr.—डेहणी ..	NE; 23·0	2·2; 599; 121; 249	.. ..
Deutavāḍā—Msi.—देऊतवाडा ..	.. 30·0	1·4; 633; 129; 318	Chandus; 4·0
Deuḷagāṅv—Amt.—देऊळगांव ..	SE; 27·0	1·9; 72; 17; 47	Pimpalganv Nipani; 2·0
Deuḷagāṅv—Dyr.—देऊळगांव ..	S; 9·0	0·8; 225; 41; 69	Kokarda; 0·1
Deuravāḍā—Acr.—देऊरवाडा ..	SE; 17·0	1·9; 2246; 481; 955	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Chandur; 25·0	Rajuravadi; 2·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Paratvada; 7·0	Paratvada; 6·0; Thu.	Vadganv; 2·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; mq; dg.
Amravati; 13·4	Valganv; 6·4; Thu.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 26·0	Shirakhed; 1·0; Fri.	Morshi; 0·2	W;w.	2 tl.
Local; ..	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w; rv.	9 Sl (5 pr, 3 m, h); Cs; Ramnavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; Mahadev Fr. Kt; 8 tl; 2mq; 2 dg; dh; ch; 2 lib; 4 dp.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	
Amravati; 22·0	Brahmanvada Govindpur; 1·0; Sun.	Karajganv; 4 0.	W.	tl.
Amravati; 14·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 4 0	w.	tl.
Achalpur; 20·0	Sirajganv Band; 2·0; Wed.	.. 1·0	W;w.	
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
.. ..	.. .. ..	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Local; ..	Local; .. Sun; Wed.	Dattapur; ..	W.	8 Sl (2 pr, 3 m, 3h); Cs; 7 tl; dh; 3 gym; lib; 4 dp.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Dattapur, ..	W.	
Kurum; 3·0	Ganoja; 1·0; Thu.	.. 2·1	w;rv.	dg.
Amravati; 15·0	Local; .. Sun.	.. 0·6	W	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; lib; dp.
Pandurana; 25·0	Rajura Bazar; 1·0; Thu.	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr);
Pandurana; 25·0	Varud; 4 0; Wed.	Varud; 4·0	w.	
Amravati; 7 0	Nandganv Peth; 1·0; Fri.	. ..	w.	
Daryapur; 12·0	Darapur, 3 0; Fri.	.. 3·0	rv.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Shendurjana; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; gym; lib.
Katol; 20·0	Rajura Bazar; 5·0; Thu.	Rajura; 6·0	rv;w.	Sl (m); Maruti Fr. Asd. Sud. 15, tl
Badnera; 22·0	Pimpalganv Nipani; 2·0; Fri.	Papal; 4·0	w.	tl.
Kokarda; 2·0	Kokarda; 0·1; Fri.	.. ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Achalpur; 16·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs (c); Balaji Fr. An. Sud. 15; 12 tl; mq; 2 dg; dp.

Village Name.	Direction ; Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop; Households ; Agriculturists.				Post Office ; Distance.	
(1)	(2)		(3)				(4)	
Devagāṅv—Acr.—देवगांव ..	NE;	8·2	0·5;	216;	48;	100	Dhamanganv;	2·0
Devagāṅv—Cdr.—देवगांव ..	SE;	18·0	3·3;	824;	205;	403	Jalaka Patache;	2·0
Devagāṅv—Dyr.—देवगांव ..	N;	20·0	1·0;	154,	39;	70	Anjanganv Surji,	2·0
Devarā—Amt.—देवरा ..	N;	14·0	1·7;	1056;	233;	411	Local;	..
Devarī—Amt.—देवरी .	N;	16·0	1·3;	441;	92;	212	Devara;	0·2
Devarī—Acr.—देवरी ..	SW;	6·0	1·2;	126;	28;	66	Chamak Bk.;	1·0
Devarī—Amt.—देवरी ..	N;	12·0	2·7;	789;	156;	398	Hirapur;	2·0
Dhāḍī—Dyr.—धाडी ..	N;	22·0	2·6;	53;	12;	31	Anjanganv Surji;	4·0
Ḍhagā—Msi.—ढगा ..	E;	32·0	0·9;	603;	139;	331	Ekadara;	..
Ḍhakaramal—Mlg.—ढाकरमल ..	N;	7·0	1·5;	206;	37;	115	Dharni;	9·0
Ḍhakūlgāṅv—Cdr.—ढाकूलगांव ..	N;	14·0	2·1;	801;	184;	374	Ashok Nagar;	2·0
Dhāmak—Cdr.—धामक ..	S;	17·0	4·1;	1346;	306;	692	Local;	..
Dhāmaṇadhas—Msi.—धामणघस	NE;	14·0	0·6;	68;	15;	35	Jamganv;	3·0
Dhāmaṇgāṅv—Acr.—धामणगांव	NE;	6·0	11·9;	2538;	532;	1172	Local,	..
Dhāmaṇgāṅv—Msi.—धामणगांव	W;	16·0	5·3;	1538;	375;	756	Katpur;	2·0
Dhāmanā Kh.—Dyr.—धामना खु.	..	..	0·7,	1;	1;	..	..	..
Dhāmantrī—Cdr.—धामंत्री ..	N;	22·0	1·9;	545;	137;	288	Varkhed;	3·0
Dhāmoḍī—Dyr.—धामोडी ..	SW;	7·1	2·7;	778;	165;	414	Local;	..
Dhanāpūr—Cdr.—धनापूर ..	E;	5·0	1·7;	54;	13;	38	Shirajganv Korde;	2·0
Dhanavāḍī—Dyr.—धनवाडी ..	NW;	24·0	1·0;	204;	49;	113	Bhandaraj;	1·0
Dhanegāṅv—Dyr.—धनेगांव ..	S;	20·0	2·6;	1150;	258;	485	Local;	..
Ḍhaṅgārakheḍā—Amt.—ढंगारखेडा. ..	NW;	24·0	1·2;	211;	51;	135	Waki;	1·0
Ḍhaṅgāḷā—Amt.—ढंगाळा ..	S;	30·0	0·7;	29;	9;	14	..	..
Dhanoḍī—Cdr.—धनोडी ..	SE;	6·0	3·2;	926;	218;	453	Shendurjana Kh.;	2·0
Dhānorā—Acr.—धानोरा ..	SE;	14·0	1·2;	485;	102,	251	Rajana;	0·4
Dhānorā—Amt.—धानोरा ..	NE;	25·0	4·4;	470;	115;	328	Brahmanavada Govindpur;	4·0
Dhānorā—Msi.—धानोरा ..	NW;	5·0	1·2;	211;	50;	132	Morshi;	4·0
Dhānorā Gurav—Amt.—धानोरा गुरव. ..	SE;	17·0	1·5;	805;	180;	386	Local;	..

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Paratvada; 9·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Wed.	Vadganv; 3·4	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
*Dhamanganv; 7·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 0 2	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Anjanganv Surji; 2·0	Anjanganv Surji; 2·0; Mon.	Anjanganv; 2·0	W,w.	2 tl.
Amravati; 14·0	Local; .. Mon.	Yavali; 2·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; m; lib; dp.
Amravati; 16·0	Devara; 0·1; Mon.	Yavali; 2·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dp.
Chamak Bk.; 1·0	Chamak Bk.; 1·0; Fri.	Achalpur; 6·0	W;rv.	Cs (gr); tl.
Amravati; 12·0	Takarkheda; 2·0; Tue.	Asht:; 2·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Anjanganv Surji; 4·0	Anjanganv Surji; 4·0; Mon.	Anjanganv; 5·0	W;w.	tl.
Narkhed; 11·0	Rajura; 7·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Tukaithad; 24·0	Dharni; 9·0; Fri.	Dharni; 7·0	W.	tl.
Dhamanganv; 9·0	Anjansingi; 2·0; ..	Local; ..	w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Chandur; 17·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. ..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; mq; dp.
Pandurana; 30·0	Benoda; 4·0; Sat	.. 3·0	W.	tl.
Achalpur; 7·0	Local; .. Wed.	Paratvada; 6·0	W;w.	2 Sl. (pr, m); Cs (c); 11tl; 2 gym; ch; lib; dp.
Amravati; 28·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs (c); 2 tl; dh; lib; dp.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	
Arvi; 6·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 8·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 tl; lib.
Banosa; 6·0	Banosa, 6·0; Thu.	.. 0·4	rv;w	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Dipori; 3·0	Virul Rondhe, 2·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	w.	tl.
Anjanganv; 8·0	Bhandaraj; 1·0; Wed.	.. 1·4	W;w	Cs (c); tl.
Anjanganv; 4·0	Anjanganv; 6·0; Mon.	Anjanganv; 6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m), Cs(c); Gokul Ashtmi Fr. Srn. Sud. 8; 3 tl, dg; lib; Cch.
Amravati; 18·0	Vathoda; 3·0; Mon.	.. 7·0	rv;w	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 10·0	w.	tl.
Dipori; 3·0	Shendurjana Kh.; 2·0; Sat.	Local; 0·2	w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; m;. 2 dg.
Achalpur; 10·0	Rajana; 0·4; Fri.	.. 6·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Shri Sunder Narayan Fr. Mg. Sud. 15; 2 tl.
Amravati; 24·0	Nerpingalai; 4·0; Thu.	.. 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati; 38·0	Morshi; 4·0; Tue.	Morshi; 5·0	W;w.	Sl (m).
Badnera; 11·0	Mahuli Chor; 3·0; Tue.	Local; ..	w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; ch; lib.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Dhānorā Jahāgīr—Dyr.—धानोरा जहागिर.	E;	10·0	0·6;	12;	3·0;	4	Arala;	1·0
Dhānorā Jog—Amt.—धानोरा जोग.	..	..	2·0;	17;	3;	9	..	..
Dhānorā Jog—Amt.—धानोरा जोग.	S;	11·0	1·3;	218;	52;	134	Januna;	1·0
Dhānorā Mālhī—Cdr.—धानोरा माल्ही.	SW;	4·0	4·2;	1087;	235;	549	Palaskhed;	1·0
Dhānorā Mogal—Cdr.—धानोरा मोगल.	NW;	9·0	3·3;	850;	192;	365	Local;	..
Dhānorā Phasī—Amt.—धानोरा फसी.	S;	16·0	1·5;	570;	122;	225	Local;	..
Dhānorā Śikrā—Cdr.—धानोरा शिक्रा.	S;	16·0	1·7;	284;	68;	153	Yevati;	2·0
Dhānorī—Amt.—धानोरी	W;	14·0	6·9;	1508;	307;	577	Local;	..
Dhārā Kot—Mlg.—धारा कोट	S;	8·0	1.2;	150;	24;	88	Dharni;	10·0
Dhāraṇī—Mlg.—धारणी	HQ;	..	3·4;	2783;	628;	567	Local;	..
Dhāranmahū—Mlg.—धारनमहू	E;	5·0	2·3;	457;	78;	247	Dharni;	6·0
Dhārāphal—Amt.—धारफळ	S;	13·0	1·4;	352;	75;	183	Sarsi;	1·0
Dharamḍoh—Mlg.—धरमडोह	.	..	1·6;	162;	34;	106	..	..
Dhārāvāḍā—Cdr.—धारवाडा	NE;	16·0	0·6;	313;	68;	170	Anjansingi;	2·0
Dhāvaḍī Bijū—Mlg.—धावडी बिजू.	S;	10·0	2·3;	523;	80;	280	Dharni;	10·0
Dhāvaḍī Mansū—Mlg.—धावडी मन्सू.	S;	10·0	1·5;	237;	38;	127	Dharni;	10·0
Dhavaḷsar—Amt.—धवळसर	S;	24·0	1·3;	304;	73;	153	Salod;	2·0
Dhavaḷsarī—Amt.—डवळसरी	S;	12·0	2·4;	685;	144;	304	Sarsi;	4·0
Dahigānv—Acv.—दहिगाव	SE;	10·0	3·5;	1079;	257;	470	Local;	..
Dhodarā—Mlg.—धोदरा	S;	12·0	1·5;	241;	34;	103	Dharni;	11·0
Dhotrā—Cdr.—धोत्रा	N;	12·0	2·0;	800;	192;	369	Shendola Bk.;	4·0
Dhotrā—Cdr.—धोत्रा	..	..	0·9;	358;	81;	214	Javala;	0·1
Dhotarakheḍā—Acv.—धोतरखेडा	NW;	5·0	2·0;	976;	217;	470	Local;	..
Dhulaghāt—Mlg.—धूलघाट	SW;	6·0	1·4;	513;	102;	262	Kalamkhar;	2·0
Dhulaghāt—Mlg.—धूलघाट	..	..	..	67;	33;	..	Dharni;	25·0

Railway Station; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Banosa;	8·0	Banosa;	8·0; Thu.	Arala;	2·0	w.	
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	w.	
Badnera;	4·0	Badnera;	4·0; Mon.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch.
Chandur;	3·0	Palaskhed;	1·0; Fri.	..	..	w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; mq; gym.
Malkhed;	7·0	Local;	.. Mon.	..	6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Badnera;	12·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	5·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; ch; lib; dp.
Chandur;	16·0	Yevati;	2·0; Wed.	..	..	rv;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	14·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	..	w;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; mq; 4 dg; dh; dp.
Tukaithad;	22·0	Dharni;	10·0; Fri.	Dharni;	8·0	W.	
Tukaithad;	20·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 3 Cs; 2 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; dh; 4 dp; Cch.
Tukaithad;	21·0	Dharni;	6·0; Fri.	Dharni;	5·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Mahadeo Fr. Phg; tl.
Badnera;	8·0	Badnera;	.. Mon.	..	4·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Dhamanganv;	12·0	Anjansingi;	2·0; Sun.	Anjansingi;	2·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Dhulghat;	30·0	Baru;	1·4; Mon.	Bod;	8·0	w.	Sl (pr), Cs; ch.
Dhulghat;	25·0	Baru;	2·0; Mon.	Bod;	8·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Badnera;	18·0	Mangrul Chaval;	5·0; Fri	..	5·0	w.	4 tl; dh
Badnera;	7·0	Loni;	2·0; Sat	.	2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr); tl; mq.
Achalpur;	10·0	Local;	.. Sun.	..	3·0	rv;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Tukaithad;	23·0	Dharni;	11·0; Fri	Dharni;	11·0	w.	
Chandur;	12·0	Shirajganv;	2·0; Wed.	..	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; gym.
Chandur;	10·0	Javala;	0·1; Fri.	Chandur;	10·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl
Elichpur;	4·0	Achalpur Camp;	3·0; Thu.	Paratvada;	2·0	W;w	Sl (pr), Cs (c); Haidubua Fr. Srn. Vad. 5; 4 tl; m; mq; dg.
Tukaithad;	18·0	Kalamkhar;	2·0; Sat.	Local;	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Local;	..	Raytalai;	11·0; Sat.	..	..	..	

Village Name.	Direction ; Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists.				Post Office ; Distance.	
(1)	(2)		(3)				(4)	
Didanda—Mlg.—दिदंदा ..	S;	9·0	2·4;	107;	19;	60	..	..
Ḍigargavhāṇ—Amt.—डिगरगव्हाण ..	..	15·0	2·9;	353;	97;	207	Shivanganv;	2·0
Dighī—Cdr.—दिघी ..	E;	23·0	1·8;	974;	219;	464	Jhada;	3·0
Dighī—Cdr.—दिघी ..	W;	10·0	2·2;	479;	118;	223	Kavatha;	2·0
Dighī—Dyr.—दिघी ..	NE;	20·0	0·8;	195;	35;	90	Vaki Raipur;	0·4
Dilālapūr—Acr.—दिलालपूर ..	E;	18·0	1·1;	245;	44;	80	Chandur Bazar;	2·0
Dilāvarapūr—Cdr.—दिलावरपूर ..	E;	3·0	0·8;	295;	76;	178	Shirajganv Korde;	0·4
Diporī—Cdr.—दिपोरी ..	E;	5·0	2·4;	464;	102;	162	Tivara;	2·0
Divānkheḍ—Cdr.—दिवानखेड ..	SE;	12·0	1·6;	366;	61;	151	Mardi;	2·0
Diyā—Mlg.—दिया ..	NE;	3·0	2·3;	362;	71;	195	Dharni;	2·4
Ḍomā—Mlg.—डोमा ..	..	..	3·0;	567;	109;	322	Katkumbha;	2·0
Ḍomak—Msi.—डोमक ..	SE;	15·0	1·6;	539;	120;	200	Ashtoli;	2·0
Ḍombāḷā—Dyr.—डोंबाळा ..	N;	6·0	1·1;	278;	61;	147	Kokarda;	1·0
Donad—Amt.—दोनद ..	N;	17·0	1·0;	260;	52;	128	Salora Kh ;	2·4
Ḍoṇgargāṅv—Dyr.—डोंगरगांव ..	..	..	1·5;	366;	76;	197	Markanda;	0·4
Donoḍā—Acr.—दोनोडा ..	S;	11·0	1·6;	542;	131;	220	Local;	..
Dunī—Mlg.—दुनी ..	N;	8·0	3·4;	564;	104;	224	Bodfarm;	3·0
Durgāpūr—Amt.—दुर्गापूर ..	S;	7·0	0·8;	39;	9;	..	Badnera;	1·0
Durgavāḍā—Cdr.—दुर्गवाडा ..	NE;	17·0	0·7;	347;	81;	169	Anjansingi;	1·4
Durgavāḍā—Msi.—दुर्गवाडा ..	SE;	2·0	2·5;	384;	87;	189	Morshi;	1·0
Ekadarā—Msi.—एकदरा ..	E;	32·0	4·4;	1608;	381;	801	Local;	..
Ekalārā—Dyr.—एकलारा ..	N;	14·0	1·4;	401;	85;	199	Songanv;	2·0
Eklārā Najik—Cdr.—एकलारा नजिक. ..	S,	11·0	0·9;	151;	28;	45	Yerad;	3·0
Ekalavihīr—Msi.—एकलविहीर ..	E;	32·0	2·6;	131;	32;	76	Linga;	3·0
Ekapāḷā—Cdr.—एकपाळा ..	S;	9·0	1·7;	88;	25;	43	Dhanora Mogal;	1·4
Elicapūr—Dyr.—एलिचपूर ..	W;	8·0	1·4;	301;	65;	174	Amala;	2·0
Emāmpūr—Msi.—इमामपूर ..	W;	17·0	2·0;	94;	21;	42	Chandur Bazar;	2·0
Eraṇagāṅv—Amt.—एरणगांव ..	S;	18·0	1·8;	930;	221;	501	Mhasala;	2·0
Esambarī—Msi.—इसम्बरी ..	E;	20·0	1·8;	419;	92;	233	Jarud;	1·4

Railway Station; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
.. ..	.. .. ..	Bodfarm; 2·0	n.	Cs; tl.
Amravati; 17·0	Pimpalvihir; 2·0; Sun.	Pimpalvihir; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch.
Dhanodi; 2·0	Mangrul Dastagir; 3·0; Wed.	Dhanodi; 2·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Malkhed; 6·0	Dhanora Mogal; 2·0; Mon.	.. 7·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kokarda; 12·0	Vaki Raipur; 0·4; Sat.	.. 8·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati; 25·0	Chandur Bazar; 2·0; Sun	Chandur Bazar; 2·0	W;w.	3 tl.
Chandur; 4·4	Chandur; 4·4; Sun.	.. 3·0	w;n	Cs; tl
Local; ..	Chandur; 5·0; Sun	.. 5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Chandur; 12·0	Mardi; 2·0; Sat	Savarli; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Tukaithad; 22·4	Dharni; 2·4; Fri.	Dharni; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Achalpur; 30·0	Katkumbha; 2·0; Thu.	.. ..	..	
Amravati; 28·0	Ashtoli; 2·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Kokarda; 2·0	Kokarda; 1·0; Fri.	Daryapur; 6·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Amravati; 13·0	Nandganv Peth; 4·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	W.	tl.
Kokarda; 14·0	Vathoda Kh.; 1·0; Mon	.. ..	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Kushta Bk.; 10·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 1·0	rv;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; dp.
Tukaithad; 19·0	Dharni; 8·0; Fri.	Bodfarm; 3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg; lib; Cch.
Badnera; 1·0	Badnera; 1·0; Mon	Badnera, 1·4	W.	tl.
Dhamanganv; 12·0	Anjansingi; 1·4; Sun.	Anjansingi; 2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Phg; 2 tl.
Amravati; 35·0	Morshi; 1·0; Tue	Morshi; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; m.
Narkhed; 10·0	Rajura Bazar; 7·0; Thu.	.. 0·2	W;w.	2 Sl (pr,m); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; gym, 2 lib; dp.
Kapus Talani; 3·0	Kokarda; 2·0; Fri.	. 11·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 5 tl.
Chandur; 11·0	Ghuikhed; 1·0; Wed.	Ghuikhed; 1·0;	w.	Cs (gr); 2 tl.
Narkhed; 9·0	Mohad; 3·0; Wed.	Pusala; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Chandur; 9·0	Rajura; 1·0; Tue.	Nandganv Khandeshvar, 5·4	w.	ti.
Banosa; 9·0	Banosa; 9·0; Thu.	Arala; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl.
Amravati; 21·0	Chandur Bazar; 2·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkhed; 4·0	Local; .. Sat.	Nandganv Khandeshvar; 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Pandurana; 26·0	Jarud; 1·4; Sun.	Jarud; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Eṭakī—Dyr.—इटकी ..	NW; 7·0	3·8; 868; 205; 410	Local; ..
Ettamagāṅv—Msi.—इत्तमगांव ..	.. ..	2·9; 905; 191; 429	Loni; 2·0
Gaḍgāmālūr—Mlg.—गडगामालूर..	S; 12·0	1·6; 269; 46; 139	Dharni; 12·0
Gājīpūr—Dyr.—गाजीपूर ..	N; 4·0	1·1; 226; 50; 82	Leheganv; 1·0
Gambherī—Mlg.—गंभेरी ..	SW; 8·0	1·8; 425; 68; 229	Kalamkhar; 3·0
Gambhīrapūr—Amt.—गंभीरपूर ..		Included in Urban Area I.	
Gambhīrapūr—Amt.—गंभीरपूर ..	W; 0·6	1·1; 14; 4; 5	Amravati; 1·0
Gaṇeśapūr—Dyr.—गणेशपूर ..	S; 1·0	1·7; 300; 67; 127	Daryapur; 2·0
Gaṇeśapūr—Msi.—गणेशपूर ..	E; 14·0	1·7; 226; 51; 154	Ambada; 5·0
Gāṅgajaī—Cdr.—गांगजई ..	E; 11·0	1·7; 84; 20; 53	Dhamanganv; 2·0
Gaṅgārakheḍā—Mlg.—गंगारखेडा	.. ..	1·8; 169; 30; 105	.. ..
Gaṅgārakheḍā—Mlg.—गंगारखेडा	.. ..	2·5; 492; 94; 289	.. ..
Gaṇojā—Amt.—गणोजा ..	SW; 10·0	3·8; 1961; 419; 847	Local; ..
Ganojā—Acr.—गनोजा ..	E; 25·0	1·4; 268; 60; 135	Sonori; 1·0
Gaṇorī—Amt.—गणोरी ..	E; 12·0	6·7; 1381; 323; 641	Local; ..
Garajadarī—Dyr. —गरजदरी ..	N; 26·0	0·4; 118; 26; 69	Nimkhed Bazar; 2·0
Gaulakheḍā—Dyr.—गौलखेडा ..	NW; 26·0	0·2; 9; 1; 4	Nimkhed Bazar; 2·0
Gaulakheḍā—Mlg.—गौलखेडा ..	S; 6·0	1·4; 473; 96; 235	Local; ..
Gaulakheḍā—Mlg.—गौलखेडा ..	S; 6·0	0·8; 166; 29; 108	Kalamkhar; 0·1
Gaurakheḍā—Acr.—गौरखेडा ..	N; 4·0	0·7; 724; 154; 374	Local; ..
Gaurakheḍā—Amt.—गौरखेडा ..	S; 20·0	1·0; 215; 46, 119	Dhanora Gurav; 1·0
Gaurakehḍā—Amt.—गौरखेडा ..	SW; 7·0	1·5; 531; 119; 242	Uattamsara; 2·4
Gaurakheḍā—Cdr.—गौरखेडा ..	E; 5·0	1·2; 53; 8; 31	Chandur; 5·0
Gaurakheḍā—Dyr.—गौरखेडा ..	.. 14·0	1·4; 438; 91; 224	Chendakapur; 3·0
Gavaḷān Ḍoh—Mlg.—गवळान डोह	W; 12·0	3·8; 250; 46; 124	Sadrabadi; 1·0
Gāvaṇḍagāṅv Bk;—Dyr.—गावंडगांव बु.	SE, 16·0	3·1; 1409; 306; 599	Local; ..
Gāvaṇḍagāṅv Kh.—Dyr.—गावंडगांव खु.	SE; 14·0	0·5; 161; 36; 70	Gavandaganv Bk; 0·1
Gāvaner Talegāṅv—Amt.—गावनेर तळेगांव .	E; 28·0	3·2; 278; 64; 132	Mangrul Chaval; 2·0
Gavhā—Cdr.—गव्हा ..	NE; 10·0	1·8; 812; 196; 413	Anjanvati; 2·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Leheganv;	2·0	Local;	.. Tue.	..	3·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); Cs (c); 4 tl; ch; lib.
Pandurana;	4·0	Loni;	2·0; Wed.	..	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr).
Dhulghat;	25·0	Baru;	5·0; Mon.	Dharni;	12·0	w.	
Leheganv;	1·0	Leheganv;	1·0; Tue.	..	1·0	rv.	4 tl.
Tukaithad;	18·0	Kalamkhar;	3·0; Sat.	Dedtalai;	3·0	w.	tl
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Amravati;	1·5	Amravati;	1·3; Wed; Sun.	Stage;	0·1	pl.	Cs; tl; mq; dg; gym.
Banosa;	2·0	Banosa;	2·0; Thu.	Daryapur;	1·0	W;w	tl.
Amravati;	45·0	Ghataladaki;	4·0; Sat.	..	14·0	w.	tl.
Dhamanganv;	2·0	Dhamanganv;	2·0; Sun.	Dhamanganv,	2·0	.	tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Kurum;	4·0	Badnera;	.. Thu.	..	..	w	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (c); 5 tl; m; mq; dh; lib; 2 dp.
Amravati;	27·0	Chandur Bazar;	4·0; Sun.	..	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr): tl.
Takali;	4·0	Local,	.. Tue	Bhatkuli;	3·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m), Cs; Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; Mahashivratra Fr; 5 tl.
Anjanganv;	6·0	Nimkhed Bazar;	2·0; Sat.	..	4·0	W,w.	
Anjanganv;	9·0	Nimkhed Bazar;	2·0; Sat	..	3·0	w.	
Achalpur;	12·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Kalamkhar;	1·0	rv.	tl.
Tukaithad;	14·0	Kalamkhar;	0·1; Sat.	Kalamkhar;	1·0	rv	tl.
Elichpur;	3·0	Achalpur Camp;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; m; gym; lib.
Badnera;	19·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	3·0; Sat.	..	0·5	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Takali;	3·0	Bhatkuli;	2·0; Fri.	.	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; Cch.
Chandur;	5·0	Chandur;	5·0; Sun.	Chirodi;	4·0	n.	
Kokarda;	10·0	Khallar;	3·0; Wed.	..	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr), tl; m.
Tukaithad;	6·0	Dedtalai;	4·0; Sun.	Dedtalai;	3·0	w.	tl.
Anjanganv;	10·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Wadner Gangai;	4·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (c); 2 tl mq
Anjanganv;	10·0	Gavandaganv Bk.,	0·1; Tue.	Wadner Gangai;	5·0	w;rv.	2 tl.
Badnera;	28·0	Mangrul Chaval;	2·4; Thu.	Local;	.	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhamanganv;	11·0	Anjanvati;	2·0; Wed.	..	3·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name.	Direction; Travelling distance.	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists.	Post Office; Distance.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Gavhāṇakuṇḍ—Msi.—गव्हाणकुंड	N; 24·0	2·0; 563; 132; 258	Tembhur-kheda; 2·0
Gavhāṇavaḍāḷ—Dyr.—गव्हाण-वडाळ.	NW; 10·0	2·4; 459; 106; 260	Kumbhargaṅv Bk; 2·0
Gavhā Nipāṇī—Cdr.—गव्हा निपाणी.	NE; 17·0	2·7; 789; 171; 386	Kavali; 2·0
Gāyavāḍī—Dyr.—गायवाडी ..	SE; 3·6	3·8; 956; 204; 127	Thilori; 2·0
Ghiḍā—Dyr.—घडा ..	SE; 15·0	1·2; 345; 72; 172	Yesurna; 4·0
Ghātakheḍā—Amt.—घातखेडा ..	E; 6·0	0·5; 110; 26; 60	Tapovan; 3·0
Ghāṭlāḍakī—Acr.—घाटलाडकी ..	.. 22·0	2·2; 3540; 792; 1534	Local; ..
Ghoḍacadī—Dyr.—घोडचदी ..	W; 8·0	2·4; 402; 88; 206	Sasan Bk; 1·4
Ghoḍadev Kh.—Msi.—घोडदेव खु.	N; 7·0	1·5; 200; 41; 115	Pala; 3·0
Ghoḍagāṅv—Acr.—घोडगांव ..	NE; 5·0	1·0; 481; 101; 228	Kavitha Bk; 0·½
Ghoḍagavhān—Msi.—घोडगव्हान	SW; 14·0	2·0; 427; 100; 174	Mangarul; 2·0
Ghoḍasagāṅv—Dyr.—घोडसगांव	N; 14·0	1·2; 321; 65; 123	Kamalpur; 1·0
Ghorāḍ—Msi.—घोराड ..	.. 31·0	2·5; 572; 150; 346	Ekadara; 2·0
Ghoṭā—Cdr.—घोटा ..	N; 14·0	1·9; 503; 110; 240	Varha; 1·0
Ghoṭā—Mlg.—घाटा.	SE; 11·0	2·1; 104; 19; 76	Dharni; 10·0
Ghuīkheḍ—Cdr.—घुईखेड ..	S; 12·0	14·0; 2537; 569; 1167	Local; ..
Ghusaḷī—Cdr.—घुसळी ..	SE; 10·0	2·0; 493; 102; 280	Dhamanganv; 4·0
Ghuṭī—Mlg.—घुटी ..	S; 6·0	2·0; 314; 59; 91	Dharni; 9·0
Giraguṭī—Mlg.—गिरगुटी ..	.. ..	4·1; 404; 74; 233	Chikhaldara; 15·0
Giroḷī—Cdr.—गिरोली ..	E; 21·0	1·9; 555; 113; 194	Chincholi; 0·6
Gobarakahū—Mlg.—गोबरकहू ..	N; 11·0	1·2; 191; 32; 104	Dharni; 11·0
Gāḍegāṅv—Msi.—गाडेगांव ..	NE; 12·0	1·7; 943; 180; 488	Local; ..
Godarī—Amt.—गोदरी ..	N; 8·0	1·2; 400; 79; 196	Nandura; 2·0
Godrī—Cdr.—गोद्री ..	NE; 30·0	1·6; 122; 23; 73	.. ..
Gokuḷasarā—Cdr.—गोकुळसरा ..	E; 23·0	1·2; 380; 92; 215	Jhada; 2·0
Goḷegāṅv—Amt.—गोळेगांव ..	S; 35·0	2·1; 332; 82; 200	.. ..
Goḷegāṅv—Dyr.—गोळेगांव ..	SW; 4·0	1·7; 245; 54; 110	Dhamodi; 2·0
Goṇḍavāḍī—Mlg.—गोंडवाडी ..	W; 6·0	1·8; 554; 99; 323	Kalamkhar; 2·0
Goṇḍavāgholī—Acr.—गोंडवाघोली	.. 17·0	4·6; 153; 30; 82	Pathrot; 3·0
Goṇḍavihir—Acr.—गोंडविहीर ..	W; 6·4	0·6; 120; 17; 69	Paratvada; 5·0
Gopagavhāṇ—Amt.—गोपगव्हाण ..	W; 5·0	1·3; 275; 53; 148	Alanganv; 0·4

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Pandurana; 28·0	Varud; 4·0; Wed.	Varud; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahadev Fr. Srn; 2 tl; m.
Kokarda; 3·0	Umri Mamdabad; 1·4; Sat.	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 4 tl; mq; dg.
Dhamanganv; 6·0	Anjansingi; 3·0; Sun.	Anjansingi; 3·0	w.	Cs (gr); 2 tl.
Banosa; 2·0	Banosa; 4·0; Thu.	Panora; 2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Gokulashtmi Fr. Srn.Sud. 8;3 tl; dg; gym; ch.
Kokarda; 12·0	Rangar Vasani; 2·0; Thu.	.. 0·4	rv;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 7·0	Amravati; 7·0;Wed.; Sat.	Amravati; 6·0	w.	tl.
Achalpur; 28·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 10·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 15 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; ch; lib; 5 dp. (vet).
Banosa; 10·0	Yewda; 2·4; Wed.	Yewda; 3·0	rv;t.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Amravati; 41·0	Hivarkhed; 3·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Achalpur; 4·½	Kavitha Bk.; 0·½; Mon.	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati; 30·0	Katpur; 3·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Kokarda; 6·0	Kokarda; 4·0; Fri.	Araia; 10·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; m.
Katol; 18·0	Rajura Bazar; 6·0; Thu.	Dhaga; 1·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Vitthal Fr.Kt.Sud. 11; 4 tl; gym.
Chandur; 13·0	Varha; 1·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Tukaithad; 30·0	Dharni; 10·0; Fri.	Lavada; 2·0	W.	.. ..
Chandur; 12·0	Local, .. Wed.	.. 12·0	w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; mq; 2 gym; ch; lib, dp.
Dhamanganv; 4·0	Dhamanganv; 4·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m.
Tukaithad; 22·0	Dharni; 9·0; Fri.	Dharni; 6·0	w;rv.	tl.
Achalpur; 20·0	Paratvada; 20·0; Thu.	.. ..	..	
Pulganv; 3·0	Pulganv; 3·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Tukaithad; 26·0	Dharni; 11·0; Fri.	Durna; 4·0	w;rv.	tl.
Pandurana; 30·0	Rajura; 4·0; Thu.	.. 4·0	w;rv	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (2 mis); tl.
Amravati; 10·0	Valganv; 2·0; Thu.	. 2·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 4·0	rv.	2 tl.
Rohana; 2·0	Rohana; 2·0; Tue.	Rohana; 2·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera; 25·0	Salod; 3·0; Fri.	.. 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; Cch.
Banosa; 4·0	Banosa; 4·0; Thu.	Daryapur; 4·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Tukaithad; 18·0	Kalamkhar; 2·0; Sat.	Local; 0·2	w;rv.	Sl (pr); dp.
Pathrot; 3·0	Pathrot; 3·0; Fri.	Pathrot; 4·0	n.	
Achalpur; 6·0	Paratvada; 5·0; Thu.	.. 1·0	w.	
Amravati; 8·0	Amravati; 8·0; Sun.	.. 4·0	w;rv.	tl

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Gorāḷā—Msi.—गोराळा ..	SW; 15·0	0·9; 240; 60; 120	.. ..
Goregāṅv—Msi.—गोरेगांव ..	E; 14·0	2·0; 457; 108; 274	Benoda; 2·0
Govindapūr—Acr.—गोविंदपूर ..	.. ..	1·1; 502; 120, 282	.. ..
Govindapūr—Acr.—गोविंदपूर ..	E; 14·0	0·6; 138; 23; 30	.. ..
Guñjī—Cdr.—गुंजी ..	NE; 11·0	1·9; 573; 125; 233	.. ..
Haḍapā—Cdr.—हडपा ..	SW; 6·0	1·7; 4; 4; 4	Palaskhed; 1·0
Haibatapūr—Cdr.—हैबतपूर ..	S; 10·0	0·9; 44; 9; 29	.. ..
Haidatapūr—Acr.—हैदतपूर ..	E; 14.0	0·5; 256; 47; 111	Chandur Bazar; 3·0
Hanavatakheḍā—Acr.—हनवतखेडा	SW; 6·0	1·2; 680; 167; 314	Paratvada; 6.0
Hantoḍā—Dyr.—हंतोडा ..	SE; 17.0	1.8; 505; 113; 217	Local; ..
Haradā—Mlg.—हरदा ..	N; 21·0	1.2; 356; 56; 193	Dharni; 23·0
Haradolī—Mlg.—हरदोली ..	E; 5·0	1·3; 230; 39; 118	Dharni; 3·0
Haram—Acr.—हरम ..	SW; 5·0	1·8; 1211; 243; 601	Local; ..
Haraṇī—Amt.—हरणी ..	S; 32·0	1·1; 256; 60; 157	Mangarul Chaval; 2·0
Haratāḷā—Amt.—हरताळा ..	W; 14·0	3·3; 940; 219; 467	Local; ..
Haratoṭī—Amt.—हरतोटी ..	W; 14·0	0·7; 231; 56; 149	Mhaispur; 3·0
Haśampūr—Msi.—हाशमपूर ..	S; 9·0	1·0; 96; 28; 30	Naya Vathoda; 1·0
Hasanāpūr—Dyr.—हसनापूर ..	NE; 4·0	1.7; 536; 114; 272	Mahuli; ..
Hasanāpūr Pāraḍi—Dyr—हसनापूर पारडी ..	W; 22·0	2·8; 307; 63; 148	Sateganv; 2·0
Hātakheḍā—Amt.—हातखेडा ..	NW; 13·0	2·2; 62; 17; 30	.. ..
Hātakheḍā—Amt.—हातखेडा ..	NW; 18·0	2·7; 745; 146; 297	Raipur; 3·0
Hātalā—Amt.—हातला ..	E, 9 4	1·7; 46; 11; 29	Bhankheda Kh; 2·0
Hātīdā—Mlg.—हातीदा ..	N; 8·0	2·6; 159; 29; 93	Dharni; 10·0
Hātūrṇā—Msi.—हातूर्णा ..	E; 30·0	1·9; 1237; 243; 617	Local; ..
Hayāpūr—Dyr.—हयापूर ..	SE; 11·0	1·5; 483; 104; 229	Kamalpur; 1·0
Himmatpūr—Amt.—हिम्मतपूर ..	SE; 18·0	1·0; 528; 106; 208	Nirul; 2·0
Hingaṇagāṅv—Cdr.—हिंगणगांव ..	E; 14·0	1·6; 598; 136; 258	Dhamanganv; 3·0
Hiṅgaṇī—Dyr.—हिंगणी ..	SE; 16·0	2·7; 560, 119; 241	Gavandaganv Bk.; 0·3
Hingaṇī Mirjhāpūr—Dyr—हिंगणी मिर्झापूर ..	S; 7·4	3·6; 560; 133; 280	Dhamodi; 2·0
Hiradāmal—Mlg.—हिरदामल ..	.. ..	0·5; 225; 38; 139	Gaulakhedr; 3·0
Hirāpūr—Acr.—हिरापूर ..	E; 20·0	0·6; 24; 5; 8	Sonori; 2·0
Hirāpūr—Amt—हिरापूर ..	NW; 15·0	0·5; 206; 54; 105	Local; ..
Hirāpūr—Cdr.—हिरापूर ..	E; 12·0	0·7; 39; 9; 17	Dhamanganv; 2·0
Hirāpūr—Dyr.—हिरापूर ..	NW; 24·0	0·4; 680; 145; 354	Nimkhed Bazar; 0·1

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
.. ..	.. .. ..	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 28·0	Benoda; 2·0; Sat.	Benoda; 2·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); tl; lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	Sl (pr).
.. ..	.. .. ..	Aseganv; 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Local, ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Chandur; 7·0	Palaskhed; 1·0; Fri.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 1·4	w.	
Achalpur; 18·0	Chandur Bazar; 3·0; Sun.	.. 0·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Achalpur; 7·0	Vadganv; 3·0; Sun	Vadaganv; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; lib.
Anjanganv; 2·0	Anjanganv; 2·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Tukaithad; 43·0	Bairagad; 3·0; Mon.	Dharni; 21·0	rv.	tl.
Tukaithad; 13·0	Dharni; 3·0; Fri.	Dharni; 5·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Naubag; 3·0	Paratvada; .. Thu.	Vadganv; 2·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs (c); tl.
Badnera; 27·0	Mangarul Chaval; 2·0; Thu.	.. 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 23·0	Darapur; 4·0; Fri.	Kholapur; 3·0	w;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl.
Amravati; 23·0	Darapur; 4·0; Fri.	Kholapur; 3·0	w;t.	tl.
Amravati; 31·0	Pimpalkhuta; 1·4; Sun.	..	W;w.	tl.
Banosa; 4·0	Banosa; 5·0; Tue.	Stage; 4·6	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Gopalpuri Kt. Sud. 8; 3 tl; dh.
Anjanganv; 4·0	Anjanganv; 4·0; Mon.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; m.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Ashti; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; mq.
Amravati; 14·0	Thuganv; 4·0; Fri.	Marki; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; m
Malkhed; 3·0	Malkhed; 3·0; Tue.	Pohara; 2·4	n.	tl.
Tukaithad; 25·0	Daru; 3·0; Mon	.. 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs
Pandurana; 34·0	Rajura; 5·0; Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; tl; lib. ch.
Kokarda; 6·0	Kokarda; 4·0; Fri.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs (c), 2 tl.
Amravati; 18·0	Thuganv; 2·0; Fri.	.. 3·0	w;rv.	2 tl.
Dhamanganv; 3·0	Dhamanganv; 3·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	w.	Sl (m), Cs; tl
Anjanganv; 10·0	Gavandaganv Bk.; 0·2; Tue.	Wadner Gangai; 4·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Banosa; 6·0	Banosa; 6·0; Thu	.. 2·4	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Achalpur; 9·0	Gaulakheda; 3·0; Tue.	.. ..	..	
Amravati; 25·0	Chandur Bazar; 2·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar; 2·0	W;w.	tl.
Amravati; 14·0	Takarkheda; 1·4; Thu.	Daryabad; 1·4	w.	tl.
Dhamanganv; 2·0	Dattapur; 2·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	W.	tl.
Anjanganv; 6·0	Nimkhed Bazar; 0·1; Sat.	.. 2·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name.	Direction; Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists.				Post office; Distance.	
(1)	(2)		(3)				(4)	
Hirapūr—Cdr.—हिरपूर	E;	16·0	3·1;	731;	168;	404	Jalaka Patache;	2·0
Hirur—Acr.—हिरूर	SE;	14·0	2·9;	1459;	314;	652	Tuljapur Gadhi;	1·0
Hiverā—Acr—हिवरा	S;	11·2	1·3;	454;	93;	268	Asegaon;	0·4
Hivarā—Amt.—हिवरा	S;	22·0	1·7;	342;	76;	177	Papal;	3·0
Hivarā—Amt.—हिवरा	SW;	15·3	2·1;	714;	163;	397	Phul Amla;	3·0
Hiva khed—Msi.—हिवरखेड	N;	7.0	3·0;	4451;	997;	1984	Local;	..
Husenapūr—Cdr.—हुसेनपूर	NE;	..	0·8;	149;	30;	71	Anjanvati;	3·0
Husenapūr—Dyr.—हुसेनपूर	NE;	6·0	2·1;	323;	80;	162	Kanholi;	..
Husenapūr Dhudakī—Dyr—हुसेनपूर धुडकी	N;	18·0	1·4;	203;	57;	126	Kalgavhan;	2·0
Husenapūr-Khodagānv—Dyr.—हुसेनपूर खोडगांव	N;	21·0	3·0;	415;	99;	204	Anjangaon Surji;	3·0
Husengābād—Msi.—हुसनाबाद	W;	18·0	0·5;	164;	38;	77	Belora; (Majara);	
Ibrāhimapūr—Amt.—इब्राहीमपूर	SW;	11·0	0·8;	129,	26;	48	Phul Amla;	..
Ibrāhimapūr—Cdr—इब्राहिमपूर	S;	6·0	0·8;	392;	99;	226	Satephal;	2·0
Icorā—Dyr.—इचोरा	E;	6·0	1·3;	132;	28;	73	Kalashi;	2·0
Ināpūr—Msi—इनापूर	S;	8·0	1·3;	195;	43;	44	Nimbhi;	1·0
Ināyatapūr—Acr.—इनायतपूर	S;	8·0	0·8,	140;	25;	57	Kurha;	2·0
Indhāpūr—Amt—इंधापूर	W;	17·0	1·0;	2;	1;	..	..	..
Indhelā—Amt.—इंधला	S;	26·0	1·1;	22;	8;	6	Salod;	1·4
Indhalā—Amt.—इंधला	E;	6·0	3·8;	780,	150;	246	Tapovan;	2·2
Isāpūr—Acr.—इसापूर	S;	12·0	1·1;	457;	84;	179	Kolha;	2·0
Isāpūr—Cdr.—इसापूर	NE;	28·4	1·4;	127;	28;	58	Varkhed;	4·0
Isāpūr—Msi.—इसापूर	S;	32·0	1·0;	263;	60;	144	Pavani;	2·0
Isegānv—Acr.—इसेगांव	S;	7·0	1·5;	192;	42;	78	Raseganv;	1·0
Ismāīlapūr—Amt.—इस्माईलपूर	NW;	14·4	1·0;	26;	7;	13	Thuganv;	2·0
Ismāīlapūr—Cdr.—इस्माईलपूर	E;	6·0	0·8;	84;	19;	43	Tivara;	1·0
Ismāīlapūr—Msi.—इस्माईलपूर	SE;	32·0	0·9;	63;	15;	19	Rithapur;	2·0
Ismāīlapūr—Msi.—इस्माईलपूर	E;	31·0	0·9;	160;	34;	88	Ekadara;	2·0
Jādhavapūr—Msi.—जाधवपूर	W;	18·0	0·3;	95;	23;	55	Belora (Majara);	
Jagannāthapūr—Acr.—जगन्नाथपूर	SE;	15·0	1·0;	166;	28;	91	Dahiganv;	2·0
Jagatapūr—Amt—जगतपूर	S;	31·0	1·3;	86;	21;	30	Savarganv;	1·4
Jahāngīrapūr—Cdr.—जहांगीरपूर	NE;	15·4	0·8;	178;	30;	94	Anjanvati;	4·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Talani;	2·0	Dhamanganv;	8·0; Sun.	..	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Achalpur;	13·0	Local;	.. Sat.	..	4·0	rv;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 2 tl; lib; dp.
Achalpur;	14·0	Aseganv;	0·4; ..	..	0·2	rv;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Badnera;	16·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	0·2	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl,
Takali;	4·0	Badnera;	9·0; Sun.	Nagzari;	0·3	w.	Sl (pr); Cs, tl.
Amravati;	45·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Stage;	0·1	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 4 tl; 2 m; 2 mq; 5 dg; 3 dp.
Chandur;	15·0	Kurha;	4·0; Thu.	Kurha;	2·6	W;rv.	tl.
Leheganv;	4·0	Kanholi;	.. Sun.	Nardoda;	0·4	rv;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Anjanganv;	12·0	Kalgavhan;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Anjanganv Surji;	3·0	Anjanganv Surji;	3·0; Mon.	..	1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; dg.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora (Majara);	.. Fri.	Rithapur;	3·0	w.	Included in Belora village.
Kurum;	3·0	Ganoja;	1·0; Thu.	..	..	W;rv.	tl.
Chandur Railway;	6·0	Baggi;	.. Thu.	..	2·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Bhujavada;	3·0	Kalashi;	1·0; Wed.	Daryapur;	6·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati;	28·0	Nimbhi;	1·0; Wed	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Achalpur;	11·0	Taleganv;	2·0; Fri.	..	2·0	W.	tl.
Kurum;	11·0	Bhatkuli;	5·0; Fri.	Bhatkuli;	5·0	t.	tl.
Badnera;	21·0	Pimpalganv Nipani;	1·4 Fri.	.	6·0	W.	
Amravati;	5·4	Amravati;	5·0; Wed.	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; mq.
Pathrot;	5·0	Kakada;	1·4; Sun.	Pathrot;	9·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs, 2 tl; ch.
Chandur;	29·0	Shendurjana;	7·0; Tue.	..	0·4	W;rv.	Cs; tl.
Narkhed;	14·0	Rajura Bazar;	4·0; Thu	Rajura Bazar;	4·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kushta Bk.;	6·0	Raseganv;	1·0; Tue.	Achalpur;	6·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Cs. (c); tl.
Amravati;	14·0	Thuganv;	2·0; Fri.	..	0·4	W.	2 tl.
Dipori;	0·4	Chandur,	5·0; Sun.	..	2·4	W.	tl.
Amravati;	34·0	Rithapur;	2·0; Tue.	..	..	W;w.	
Katol;	17·4	Jalalkheda;	3·4; Fri; Mon.	Amaner;	2·0	W.	tl.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora (Majara);	.. Fri.	Rithapur;	3·0	W	Included in Belora village
Achalpur;	14·0	Dahiganv;	2·0; Sun.	Aseganv;	5·0	W;w.	Sl. (pr); tl.
Darvha;	18·0	Savarganv;	1·4; Thu.	..	5·0	W.	tl.
Chandur;	15·0	Kurha;	4·0; Thu.	Kurha;	4.0	W.	

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Jahāṅgīrpūr—Cdr.—जहांगीरपूर	S; 6·0	1·3; 387; 97; 231	Satephal; 3·0
Jahānapūr—Dyr.—जहानपूर	N; 0·4	1·1; 135; 23; 67	Vaki-Raipur; 0·4
Jahānapūr—Dyr.—जहानपूर	NE; 20·0	0·9; 89; 18; 43	Daryapur; 1·0
Jainapūr—Acr.—जैनपूर	E; 13·0	0·9; 288; 58; 145	Kharala; 2·0
Jainapūr—Dyr.—जैनपूर	SW; 10·0	1·8; 1138; 289; 597	Local; ..
Jaitāpūr—Amt.—जैतापूर	N; 11·5	0·8; 196; 35; 68	Nirul; 2·0
Jaitāpūr—Dyr.—जैतापूर	S; 5·2	0·6; 48; 25; 16	Takali; 1·0
Jaḷagāṅv—Cdr.—जळगांव	E; 17·0	2·9; 618; 141; 347	Kavali; 2·4
Jaḷagāṅv Ārvī—Cdr.—जळगांव आर्वी	E; 11·0	3·2; 794; 172; 350	Dhamanganv; 2·0
Jaḷakā—Amt.—जळका	NW; 15·0	3·8; 991; 204; 440	Hirapur; ..
Jaḷakā—Amt.—जळका	E; 14·0	9·9; 476; 113; 308	Local; ..
Jaḷakā—Cdr.—जळका	NE; 9·0	4·6; 1711; 397; 857	Local; ..
Jaḷakā Paṭāce—Cdr.—जळका पटाचे	SE; 16·0	4·4; 1131; 264; 533	Local; ..
Jalālpūr—Acr.—जलालपूर	NW; 8·0	2·8; 37; 9; 22	Dhamanganv; 2·0
Jālanāpūr—Msi.—जालनापूर	W; 16·0	0·6; 633; 150; 272	Sonori, 1·0
Jaḷū—Amt.—जळू	S; 9·0	2·5; 556; 143; 342	Dabha; 1·4
Jamāpūr—Acr.—जमापूर	E; 14·0	0·5; 39; 10; 14	Sirajganv Band; 0·2
Jāmbū—Mlg.—जांबू	SE; 15·0	4·2; 256; 44; 152	Harisal, 4·0
Jāmaḍol—Amt.—जामडोल	NE; 25·0	0·9; 189; 44; 120	Brahmanvada Govindpur; 5·0
Jāmagāṅv—Amt.—जामगांव	N; 14·0	2·3; 680; 156; 356	Mahuli; 2·0
Jāmagāṅv—Msi.—जामगांव	NE; 12·0	1·3; 1208; 280; 569	Local; ..
Jāmagāṅv—Msi.—जामगांव	.. ..	3·2; 231; 46; 153	Linga; 4·0
Jāmalī—Mlg.—जामली	.. ..	2·2; 487; 90; 271	.. ..
Jamālpūr—Msi.—जमालपूर	E; 30·0	1·2; 91; 23; 47	Loni; 2·0
Jāmaṭhī—Amt.—जामठी	SE; 15·0	1·1; 51; 8; 26	Jamganv; 0·2
Jāmaṭhī Gaṇeśapūr—Msi.—जामठी गणेशपूर	. 35·0	6·3; 983; 212; 386	Movad; 0·1
Janorī—Acr.—जानोरी	SW; 16·0	1·4; 83; 18; 35	Sindi; 1·0
Janūnā—Acr.—जनूना	W; 17·0	1·1; 151; 30; 74	Pathrot; 4·0
Janūnā—Amt.—जनूना	S; 11·0	2·6; 589; 129; 174	Local; ..
Jarūḍ—Msi.—जरूड	E; 18·0	10·1; 6344; 1358; 2717	Local; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Chandur; 6·0	Baggi; .. Thu.	Chandur; 6·0	W,w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kokarda; 12·0	Vaki-Raipur; 0·4; Sat.	.. 1·0	rw;w.	tl.
Banosa; 1·0	Banosa; 1·0; Thu.	.. 8·0	w;w.	2 tl.
Amravati; 21·0	Javala; 1·0; Thu.	.. 1·2	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Banosa; 10·0	Local; .. Sun.	Yewda; 5·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl; ch; dp; (vet).
Amravati; 10·0	.. 3·0; Sat.	Local; ..	w.	tl.
Bhujavada; 1·0	Banosa; 4·0; Thu.	Nearby; ..	w;w.	Cs (gr); tl.
Dhamanganv; 6·0	Mangrul Dastagir; 2·0; Wed.	.. 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhamanganv; 2·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Sun.	. 2·0	w;w.	Sl (pr), Cs; Nagoba Fr. Ps; 3 tl; gym.
Amravati; 15·0	Takarkhed; 1·4; Tue	Daryabad; 1·4	w;w;t	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; lib.
Amravati; 12·0	Local; .. Tue.	Savardi; 2·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Shri Khandoba Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 3 tl.
Chandur; 9·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 3·0	w,w.	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; mq; lib.
Dhamanganv; 6·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 0·3	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dg; lib.
Paratvada; 9·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Wed.	.. 8·0	rv.	Cs; tl.
Achalpur; 19·0	Chandur Bazar; 4·0; Sun.	Rithopur; 3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl.
Badnera; 3·0	Badnera; 3·0; Mon.	Local; 0·1	w	Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch.
Achalpur; 19·0	Sirajganv Band; 0·2; Wed.	Stage nearby; ..	w;w.	
Tukaithad; 34·0	Harisal; 4·0; Wed.	Harisal; 4·0	n.	Sl (pr).
Amravati; 25·0	Nerpingalai; 2·0; Thu.	.. 6·0	w.	tl.
Timtala; 4·0	Mahuli; 2·0; Tue.	Mahuli Chor; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Pandurana; 26·0	Local; . Wed.	.. 1.0	w;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Pandurana; 10·0	Pusala; 7·0; Tue.	. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Pandurana; 45·0	Singori; 1·0; Tue.	Benoda; 8·0	rv.	Sl (pr).
Badnera; 8·0	Mahuli Chor; 2·0; Tue.	.. 3·0	w.	tl.
Narkhed; 6·0	Movad; 0·1; Wed.	Movad; 0·4	w;w.	Sl (pr); Meghanath Fr. Phg. sud. 15; 5 tl; dg; ch.
Pathrot; 2·0	Sindi; 1·0; Wed.	.. ..	rv;w.	
Pathrot; 6·0	Pathrot; 4·0; Fri.	Pathrot; 5·0	w;w.	tl.
Badnera; 5·0	Badnera; 5·0; Mon.	Local; 0·2	W.	Sl(m); Cs.; 4 tl
Pandurna; 26·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W;w.	5 Sl (2 pr, m, 2 h); 3 Cs; 13 tl; m; mq; 4 dg; 2 gym; lib; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Jasāpūr—Acr.—जसापूर ..	E; 17·0	2·0; 771; 163; 338	Chandur Bazar; 2·0
Jasāpūr—Amt.—जसापूर ..	.. 13·0	0·7; 79; 19; 35	Januna; 0·4
Jasāpūr—Amt.—जसापूर ..	W; 28·0	1·1; 563; 122; 307	Khalkoni; 2·0
Jasāpūr—Dyr.—जसापूर ..	E; 8·0	1·5; 412; 84; 201	Arala; 2·0
Jasāpūr—Msi.—जसापूर ..	.. ..	0·2; 8; 3; 2	Rithapur; 2·0
Javaḷā—Acr.—जवळा ..	E; 14·0	2·7; 1232; 252; 492	Ta'vel; 4·0
Javaḷā—Cdr.—जवळा ..	SE; 10·0	1·9; 881; 198; 470	Local; ..
Javaḷā Bk.—Dyr.—जवळा बु. ..	N; 18·0	2·1; 355; 79; 170	Kasbegavhan; 2·0
Javaḷā Kh.—Dyr.—जवळा खु. ..	N; 18·0	0·9; 217; 43; 94	Kasbegavhan; 2·0
Javaḷāpūr—Acr.—जवळापूर ..	SE; 13·0	0·9; 399; 84; 182	Pathrot; 1·0
Jāvarā—Amt.—जावरा ..	N; 10·0	1·9; 307; 62; 149	Naya Akola; 1·4
Jāvarā—Amt.—जावरा ..	N; 12·0	2·2; 460; 89; 205	Januna; 0·2
Jāvarā—Cdr.—जावरा ..	N; 28·0	4·0; 707; 163; 391	Local; ..
Jāvarā—Cdr.—जावरा ..	S; 7·0	2·6; 641; 208; 488	Nimgavhan; 1·0
Jāvarā Moḷavaṇ—Amt.—जावरा मोळवण	SE; 22·0	2·0; 563; 125; 311	Veni Ganeshapur; 2·0
Javarḍī—Acr.—जवर्डी ..	SE; 4·3	2·6; 397; 83; 175	.. ..
Javarḍī—Dyr.—जवर्डी ..	N; 16·0	1·9; 307; 79; 156	Bhandaraj; 2·0
Jayasiṅgā—Amt.—जयसिंगा ..	N; 18·0	1·1; 224; 56; 97	Dhanora Phasi; 0·4
Jaytāpūr—Amt.—जयतापूर ..	.. ..	0·2; 45; 7; ..	.. ..
Jeṭhmalpūr—Dyr.—जेठमलपूर ..	NW; 21·0	0·4; 1; 1; ..	Anjanganv; 3·0
Jevaḍ—Amt.—जेवड ..		Included in Urban Area I.	
Jevaḍ (Rural Area)—Amt.—जेवड (ग्रामीण विभाग)	S; 1·0	1·8; 29; 7; 11	Amravati; 1·0
Jhāḍā—Cdr.—झाडा ..	E; 21·0	2·6; 1031; 225; 508	Local; ..
Jhaḍagānv—Cdr.—झाडगांव ..	E; 20·0	5·8; 909; 222; 435	Chincholi; 0·4
Jhāñjī—Amt.—झांजी ..	NW; 15·0	0·5; 37; 10; 29	Dhanori; 0·6
Jhāpala—Mlg.—झापळ ..	S; 11·0	1·8; 59; 13; 42	.. ..
Jhaṭāmajhirī—Mrī.—झटामझिरी ..	W; 28·0	2·7; 280; 61; 179	Shendurjana; 3·0
Jhibalā—Cdr.—झिबला ..	S; 14·4	1·6; 89; 18; 44	Yerad; 0·1
Jhilapī—Mlg.—झिलपी ..	S; 11·0	4·8; 744; 135; 328	Sadrabadi; 1·0
Jhilāṅgapāṭī—Mlg.—झिलांगपाटी	S; 12·0	1·8; 323; 66; 180	Dharni; 12·0
Jhimalā—Dyr.—झिमला ..	.. ..	0·6; 2; 1; 1	.. ..
Jholambā—Msi.—झोलंबा ..	NE; 9·0	2·5; 511; 126; 297	Loni; 4·0
Jītāpūr—Dyr.—जीतापूर ..	E; 7·0	0·9; 119; 30; 65	Arala; 0·6

Railway Station; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Achalpur; 19·0	Chandur Bazar; 2·0; Sun.	.. 1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Timtala; 3·0	Mahuli; 2·0; Tue.	Local; ..	w.	tl; ch.
Amravati; 18·0	Darapur; .. Fri.	.. 6·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Daryapur; 10·0	Daryapur; .. Thu.	Borala; 0·4	w;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 22·0	Rithapur; 2·0; Tue.	Rithapur; 2·0	w.	
Amravati; 21·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr,m); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Chandur; 10·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 5·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; ch; dp.
Kapus Talani; 5·0	Kasbegavhan; 2·0; Sat.	.. 10·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Kapus Talani; 5·0	Kasbegavhan; 2·0; Sat.	.. 10·0	rv;w.	Cs; tl.
Pathrot; 2·0	Pathrot; 1·4; Fri.	Pathrot; 1·0	W;w	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 10·0	Valganv; 4·0; Thu.	Vayaganv; 1·0	w;n.	tl.
Timtala; 2·0	Mahuli; 2·0; Tue.	Local; 0·4	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Chandur; 25·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 4·0	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl
Dipori; 5·0	Baggi; 1·0; Thu.	Shendurjana Kh.; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dg.
Badnera; 16·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar; 2·0; Sat;	Nandganv Khandeshvar; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 0·3	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Anjanganv; 10·0	Bhandaraj; 2·0; Wed.	.. 2·0	w;n.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); tl.
Badnera; 12·0	Dhanora Phasi; 0·4; Thu.	Loni; 5·0	w.	3 tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	.	
Anjanganv; 3·0	Anjanganv; 3·0; Mon.	Anjanganv; 3·0	w.	
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Amravati; 1·0	Amravati; 1·0; Sun; Wed.	Amravati; 1·0	w.	2 tl.
Talani; 4·0 Nimbora;	Mangrul Dastagir; 4·0; Wed.	.. ..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq; gym; ch.
Talani; 3·0	Pulganv; 3·0; Mon.	Pulganv; 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; gym; dp.
Amravati; 15·0	Dhanori; 0·6; Sun.	.. 0·1	w;n.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Bodfarni; 4·0	w.	
Mulatai; 21·0	Shendurjana; 3·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Vitthal Fr. Kt. Sud 11; tl.
Chandur; 12·0	Yerad; 0·1; Fri.	Shivani Rasulpur; 8·0	W;w.	tl.
Tukaithad; 7·0	Dedtalai; 3·0; Sun.	Dedtalai; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhulghat; 25·0	Baru; 5·0; Mon.	Dharni; 12·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	tl.
Pandurna; 28·0	Hivarkhed; 3·0; Mon.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
[illegible]; 7·0	Arala; 0·6; Sun.	.. 0·4	W;w;t.	tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Juṭapānī—Mlg.—जुटपानी ..	S; 3·0	3·2; 289; 56; 169	Dharni; 5·0
Kabīṭpūr—Msi.—कबीटपूर ..	E; 4·0	0·7; 1; 1; 1	Morshi; 4·0
Kācūrṇā—Msi.—काचूर्णा ..	SE; 23·0	1·9; 557; 113; 236	Mangruli; 0·4
Kaḍhāv—Mlg.—कढाव ..	E; 5·0	1·1, 230; 46; 128	Bodfarm; 0·4
Kājalḍoh—Mlg.—काजलडोह ..	.. ..	3·2; 544; 101; 328	Katkumbha; 4·0
Kājaḷī—Acr.—काजळी ..	NE; 17·0	2·0; 774; 159; 354	Local; ..
Kājanā—Amt.—काजना ..	S; 20·2	1·7; 899; 199; 449	Papal; 2·0
Kākaḍā—Acr.—काकडा ..	S; 11·0	3·5; 2274; 476; 948	Local; ..
Kākarakheḍā—Amt.—काकरखेडा	W; 22·0	0·2; 96; 17; 50	Kholapur; 2·0
Kākaramal—Mlg.—काकरमल ..	E; 11·0	1·2; 218; 38; 124	Dharni; 11·0
Kāḷagavhāṇ—Dyr.—काळगव्हाण	NW; 18·0	2·1; 948; 234; 482	Local; ..
Kaḷamagānv—Cdr.—कळमगांव ..	S; 4·0	3·4; 868; 148; 432	Satephal; 2·0
Kaḷamagavhāṇ—Amt.—कळम-गव्हाण.	N; 16·0	1·5; 158; 39; 73	Saur; 2·0
Kaḷam Gavhāṇ—Dyr.—कळम गव्हाण.	W; 8·0	1·0; 294; 67; 149	Amala; 2·0
Kaḷamajāpūr—Cdr.—कळमजापूर	S; 4·0	1·4; 603; 146; 313	Satephal; 2·0
Kaḷamakhār—Mlg.—कळमखार ..	SW; 5·0	2·4; 991; 219; 440	Local; ..
Kālāpānī—Mlg.—कालापानी ..	.. ..	0·4; 158; 30; 103	Gaulakheda; 2·4
Kālapī—Mlg.—कालपी .	.. ..	1·2; 154; 30; 86	Dharni; 3·0
Kaḷāśī—Cdr.—कळाशी ..	E; 16·0	2·5; 435; 104; 214	Nimbhora; 1·0
Kaḷāśī—Dyr.—कळाशी ..	E; 7·0	4·6; 1464; 332; 696	Local; ..
Kālavāḍā—Dyr.—कालवाडा ..	SE; 16·0	0·7; 42; 8; 35	.. 2·0
Kalaviṭ—Acr.—कलविट ..	N; 5·0	0·8; 193; 32; 122	Paratvada, 5·0
Kalhoḍī—Acr.—कल्होडी ..	NE; 13·0	0·7; 365; 86; 207	Sarphapur; 0·4
Kamālapūr—Dyr.—कमालपूर ..	SE; 12·0	0·5; 342; 70; 149	Local; ..
Kamaḷāpūr—Msi.—कमळापूर ..	S; 13·0	1·4; 274; 62; 127	Rajuravadi; 1·0
Kāmatāpūr—Amt.—कामतापूर ..	N; 10·0	1·8; 603; 132; 306	Naya Akola; 1·4
Kāmanāpūr—Cdr.—कामनापूर ..	SE; 10·0	1·5; 329; 70; 164	Shendurjana Kh; 1·0
Kāmuñjā—Amt.—कामुंजा ..	W; 7·0	2·4; 551; 108; 207	Valganv Jahagir; 2·0
Kānaphoḍī—Amt.—कानफोडी ..	SW; 12·0	1·5; 239; 49; 93	Ganoja; 1·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Tukaithad;	25·0	Dharni;	5·0; Fri.	Dharni;	3·0	w.	
Amravati;	36·0	Morshi;	4·0; Tue.	Morshi;	4·0	W.	
Pandurana;	30·0	Rajura;	3·0; Thu.	Jarud;	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Tukaithad;	16·0	Dharni;	5·0; Fri.	Bodfarm;	0·3	rv.	Sl (pr).
Achalpur;	30·0	Katkumbha;	4·0; Thu.	..	..	..	
Achalpur;	18·0	Deuravada;	0·2; Fri.	..	3·0	W,w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; dp.
Badnera;	16·0	Dhanajpur;	2·0; Tue.	..	6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; dg.
Pathrot;	4·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Pathrot;	8·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 6 tl; mq; ch; lib; dp.
Amravati;	23·0	Darapur;	3·0; Fri.	Kholapur;	2·0	W.	tl.
Tukaithad;	26·0	Dharni;	11·0; Fri	Durna;	4·0	W;rv.	tl.
Anjanganv;	14·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	3·0	W;n.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 3 tl; mq.
Chandur;	4·0	Chandur;	4·0; Sun.	..	4·0	W	Sl (pr); pyt, Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Pournima; 3 tl.
Amravati;	16·0	Saur;	2·0; Sat.	Shirala;	3·0	W;r.	2 tl
Banosa;	9·0	Banosa;	9·0; Thu.	Arala;	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Chandur;	4·0	Chandur;	4·0; Sun.	..	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Tukaithad;	14·0	Local;	.. Sat.	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Achalpur;	10·0	Gaulakheda;	2·4; Tue.	..	.	..	
Tukaithad;	15·0	Dharni;	3·0; Fri	Dharni;	0·2	..	
Talani;	1·0	Pulganv;	6·0; Mon.	Asegaonv;	3·0	W.	Sl (m); Cs; 3 tl; m.
Bhujavada;	3·0	Local;	.. Wed	..	..	W,w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; lib; dp (vet).
Kapus Talani;	3·0	Murha Bk.;	0·4; Sun.	Anjanganv;	4·0	rv;w.	tl.
Achalpur;	6·0	Paratvada;	5·0; Thu	..	1·0	W.	
Elichpur;	10·0	Shirajganv Kasaba;	3·0; Sat.	..	0·6	W,w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kokarda;	6·0	Kokarda;	4·0; Fri.	Khallar;	4·0	W;w.	Cs (c); tl.
Amravati;	29·0	Rajuravadi;	1·0; Sat.	Local;	.	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Amravati;	10·0	Valganv;	4·0; Thu	Vayaganv;	1·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs, 3 tl.
Dhamanganv;	3·0	Dhamanganv;	3·0; Sun.	..	3·0	W.	Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. Pournima; tl.
Amravati;	6·0	Valganv Jahagir.	2·0; Thu.	..	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; gym.
Karum;	3·0	Ganoja;	1·0; Thu.	..	2·1	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Kānas—Amt.—कानस ..	S; 22·0	0·7; 30; 6; 10	Nandganv Khandeshvar; 1·4
Kāṇḍalī—Acr.—कांडली ..	NE; 2·0	2·0; 1338; 307; 545	Local; ..
Kanhaḷā—Cdr.—कन्हळा ..	SE; 14·0	1·1; 143; 32; 67	Chandur Rly. 14·0
Kanherī—Mlg.—कन्हेरी ..	.. ..	2·4; 144; 28; 78	.. ..
Kānholī—Dyr.—कान्होली ..	NE; 6·0	2·0; 554; 118; 293	Local; ..
Kañjharā—Amt.—कंझरा ..	SE; 20·0	3·2; 694; 151; 366	Dhanora Mogal; 2·0
Kañjolī—Mlg.—कंजोली ..	S; 28·0	3·4; 226; 38; 129	Dharni; 30·0
Kāpūs Taḷaṇī—Amt.—कापूस तळणी.	NW; 16·4	3·0; 687; 180; 352	Kekatpur; 2·0
Kāpūs Taḷaṇī—Dyr.—कापूस तळणी.	N; 14·0	5·4; 4028; 889; 1503	Local; ..
Kārā—Mlg.—कारा ..	SE; 14·0	2·0; 372; 69; 217	Harisal; 2·0
Kārādā—Mlg.—कारादा ..	E; 12·0	1·7; 263; 41; 130	Dharni; 11·0
Kārādā—Mlg.—कारादा ..	.. ..	3·1; 251; 41; 129	.. ..
Kārañjā Baheram—Acr.—कारंजा बहेरम.	NE; 13·0	6·9; 864; 181; 356	Local; ..
Karajagāṅv—Amt.—करजगांव ..	N; 18·5	3·5; 651; 139; 325	Davarganv; 2·0
Karajagāṅv—Msi.—करजगांव ..	E; 15·0	2·2; 1257; 231; 715	Local; ..
Karajagāṅv—Msi.—करजगांव ..	W; 4·0	1·4; 572; 148; 303	Dapori; 6·0
Kāralā—Cdr.—कारला ..	N; 6·0	7·0; 1558; 361; 829	Chandur; 6·0
Kāralā—Dyr.—कारला ..	NW; 24·0	2·1; 1285; 283; 770	Local; ..
Kāralī—Msi.—कारली ..	E; 37·0	1·9; 202; 39; 127	Linga; 5·0
Karatakheḍā—Dyr.—करतखेडा ..	W; 11·0	1·4; 656; 140; 317	Ramtirth; 1·0
Kāravār—Msi.—कारवार ..	W; 40·0	2·0; 148; 39; 89	Linga; 2·0
Karṇā Mirjhāpūr—Amt.—कर्णा मिर्झापूर.	S; 28·0	3·1; 916; 194; 419	.. 1·0
Kasabe Gavhāṇ—Dyr.—कसबे गव्हाण.	N; 15·0	5·7; 2372; 494; 1072	Local; ..
Kasāīkheḍā—Mlg.—कसाईखेडा ..	N; 18·0	1·9; 127; 20; 78	Dharni; 16·0
Kāsamapūr—Dyr.—कासमपूर ..	W; 4·0	1·3; 698; 169; 389	Daryapur; 4·0

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Chandur; 8·0	Nandganv; 2·0; Sat.	Nandganv; 3·0	W.	tl.
Achalpur; 1·0	Paratvada 1·0; Thu.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; dh; gym.
Chandur Rly. 14·0	Kavatha; 4·0; Thu.	Chandur Rly. 14·0	W.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Leheganv; 4·0	Local; .. Sun.	Nardoda; 0·4	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Timtala; 7·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar; 2·0; Sat.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Dhulghat; 4·0	Raytalai; 12·0; Sat.	Tukaithad; ..	W.	
Amravati; 16·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Local; ..	Local; . Tue.	.. 6·0	W;w.	7 Sl (4 pr, 2 m, h); pyt; Cs; 11 tl, 2 mq; dg; 2 dh; 3 lib; dp; Cch.
Tukaithad; 37·0	Harisal; 2·0; Wed.	Harisal; 3·0	W.	Meghanath Baba Fr. Phg.
Tukaithad; 26·0	Dharni; 11·0; Fri.	Duni; 4·0	W;rv.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	Duni; 8·0	W; rv.	tl.
Achalpur; 8·0	Local;	Paratvada; 0·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs; Bahiram buva Fr Mrg. Sud. 5; 3 tl; m; gym; lib; dp.
Amravati, 20·0	Sirajganv; 2·0; Sat.	.. 0·6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; dh.
Pandurana; 26·0	Loni; 2·0; Wed.	.. ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Amravati; 40·0	Morshi; 6·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 Cs (2 cs, fmg); 2 tl.
Chandur; 7·0	Local; .. Mon.	Chirodi; 2·4	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; Avadhut-maharaj Fr. Gudhi Padva. Ct; 4 tl; 4 m; ch; lib.
Anjanganv; 9·0	Local; .. Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Zageshwar Fr Mg Sud. 12; 4 tl; m; lib.
Pandurana; 10·0	Pusala; 8·0; Tue.	.. 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Banosa; 12·0	Local; .. Tue.	Daryapur; 11·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Pandurana; 10·0	Pusala; 7·0; Tue.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Badnera; 23·0	Mangrul Chaval; 2·0; Tue.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs; tl; dg; lib.
Kapus Talani; 5·0	Local; .. Sat.	.. 10·0	W;rv	3 Sl (2 pr; m); 2 Cs; 6 tl, mq; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Tukaithad; 36·0	Bairagad; 4·0; Mon.	Dharni; 21·0	W;n.	
Banosa; 4·0	Banosa; 4·0; Thu.	Daryapur; 4·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Kāsamapūr—Msi —कासमपूर ..	SW;	18·0	0·9;	178;	44;	70	Adganv;	..
Kāsamār—Mlg.—कासमार ..	S;	12·0	2·1;	153;	28;	81	Dharni;	13·0
Kāsomapūr—Acr.—कासमपूर ..	W;	10·0	0·7;	463;	108;	262	Pathrot;	1·0
Kāsārī—Msi —कासारी ..	NE;	10·0	2·5;	2;	1;	2	Loni;	4·0
Kasār Kheḍ—Cdr.—कसार खेड ..	E;	15·0	2·1;	620;	151;	336	Dhamanganv;	3·0
Kāśikheḍ—Cdr.—काशिखेड ..	SE;	10·0	1·9;	565;	110;	282	Vadhona;	2·0
Kastūrā—Amt.—कस्तूरा ..	S;	7·0	1·0;	86;	19;	38	BhankhedaKh;	1·4
Kāṭāmalā—Amt.—काटआमला .	S;	8·0	2·3;	455;	95;	185	Uttamsara;	1·0
Kāṭakumbha—Mlg.—काटकुंभ ..	..	..	2·7;	739;	146;	356	Local;	..
Kāṭapūr—Msi —काटपूर ..	SW;	11·0	1·3;	850;	208;	288	Local;	..
Kāṭapūr—Msi.—काटपूर ..	SW;	21·4	3·2;	713;	176;	360	Adganv;	1·0
Kātakheḍ—Dyr.—कातखेड ..	NW;	10·0	0·9;	153;	38;	77	Umri-mamdabad;	2·0
Kātasūr—Cdr —काटसूर ..	SE;	3·0	1·0;	88;	15;	48	Varkhed;	..
Kaṭhoḍā—Amt —कठोडा ..	S;	15·0	2·4;	787;	183;	430;	Mahuli Chor;	2·0
Koṭhārā— Acr —कोठारा ..	NE,	4·0	1·3;	496;	58;	21	Paratvada;	4·0
Kaṭhorā Bk —Amt —कठोरा बु...	N;	6·0	3·0;	824;	180;	316	Rahatganv;	1·0
Kaṭhorā Kh.—Amt.—कठोरा खु.	N;	11·0	1·2;	496;	89;	233	Salor Kh;	2·0
Kāṭī—Msi.—काटी ..	NE;	11·0	0·8;	840;	187;	409	Gadeganv;	2·0
Kavaḍ Gavhāṇ—Cdr.—कवड गव्हाण.	N;	18·0	1·4;	521;	122;	261	Local;	..
Kāvalī—Cdr.—कावली ..	NE;	14·0	4·3;	1317;	304;	616	Local;	..
Kavaṭhā—Amt.— कवठा ..	SW;	6·0	3·4;	829;	176;	405	..	..
Kavaṭhā—Cdr —कवठा ..	W;	7·0	2·2;	1169;	286;	542	Local;	..
Kavaṭhāḷ—Msi —कवठाळ ..	S;	12·0	3·8;	789;	151;	373	Rajuravadi;	1·0
Kaviṭhā Bk —Acr.—कविठा बु .	NE;	5·0	3·6;	1772;	384;	836	Local;	..
Kekadā—Mlg.—केकदा ..	N;	9·0	1·8;	219;	41;	127	Dharni;	8·0
Kekatapūr—Amt.—केकतपूर ..	N;	18·0	7·3;	1314;	300;	605	Local;	..
Khairī—Acr.—खैरी ..	S;	16·0	1·3;	306;	63;	124	Local;	..
Khairī—Dyr.—खैरी ..	S;	10·0	1·3;	248;	52;	102	Kalashi;	2·0
Khājamānagar —Acr.—खाजमानगर.	NW;	6·0	0·4;	697;	143,	358	Haram;	0·4
Khālakhonī—Amt.—खालखोनी ..	W;	23·0	0·7;	522;	106;	280	Local;	..

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day	Motor Stand ; Distance	Water	Institutions and other information
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Amravati; 18·0	Adganv; .. Thu.	.. 3·0	W;w.	tl; dp.
Tukaithad; 25·0	Dharni; 13·0; Fri.	Dharni; 12·0	W;rv.	
Pathrot; 3·0	Pathrot; 3·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Amravati; 41·0	Hivarkhed; 4·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.	
Dhamanganv; 3·0	Dhamanganv; 3·0; Sun.	Dhamanganv; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Dhamanganv; 2·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Sun	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. Pournima; tl; dp.
Malkhed; 2·0	Malkhed; 2·0; Tue.	Pohara; 3·0	W;n.	tl.
Badnera; 3·0	Badnera; 3·0; Mon. Fri.	Badnera; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
.. ..	Local;	.. .	..	
Amravati; 25·0	Local; .. Mon.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; 4 m; mq; dg.
Amravati; 22·0	Adganv; 1·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	rv;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Leheganv; 5·0	Yewda; 1·0; Wed.	Yewda; 1·4	rv;w.	Cs (gr); tl.
Chandur, 28·0	Shendurjana; 6·0; Tue.	.. 3·0	W;n.	Cs (gr); 2 tl.
Badnera; 10·0	Mahuli Chor; 2·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Paratvada; 5·0	Paratvada; 4·0; Thu.	.. 2·0	W;pl.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; lib, dp; Cch.
Amravati; 5·5	Amravati; 5·5; Sun.	.. 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; dg; lib.
Amravati; 10·0	Nandganv Peth; 2·0; Fri.	Nandganv Peth; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Pandurana; 28·0	Rajura; 2·0; Thu.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur; 18·0	Shendurjana Bk; 6·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; 2 tl; lib.
Dhamanganv; 6·0	Local; .. Mon.	Dhamanganv; 6·0	W	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 4 tl; lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 1·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Vithoba Fr. Kt Sud. 12; 3 tl; dh; dp.
Malkhed; 4·0	Local; .. Thu	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl; mq.
Amravati; 31·0	Rajuravadi; 1·0; Sat.	Kamalapur; 1·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Achalpur; 4·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 4·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 8 tl.
Tukaithad; 26·0	Dharni; 6·0; Fri.	Dharni; 10·0	W.	
Amravati; 17·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 1·3	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c), Khandoba Fr. Ps. Vad. 4; 4 tl; dp.
Kushta Bk.; 10·0	Donoda; 0·2; Wed.	.. 0·3	w;rv.	Sl (pr), Cs (c); tl.
Daryapur; 11·0	Kalashi; 2·0; Wed.	Daryapur; 10·0	w.;rv	Sl (pr); tl.
Kushta Bk ; 4·0	Vadganv Phattepur; 1·4; Sun.	.. 1·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; 2 mq; gym; lib.
Kuram; 8·0	Darapur; 4·0; Fri.	.. 3·0	W.	tl.

Village Name.	Direction ; Travelling distance.		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists.				Post Office ; Distance.	
(1)	(2)		(3)				(4)	
Khaḍakā—Msi.—खडका ..	N;	11·0	1·5;	679;	160;	346	Jamganv;	1·0
Khallār—Amt.—खल्लार ..	SW;	11·4	1·6;	221;	50;	102	Uttamsara;	1·0
Khallār—Dyr.—खल्लार ..	SE;	12·0	3·1;	1813;	369;	771	Local;	..
Khallār Lāṇḍī—Dyr.—खल्लार लांडी.	SE;	12·0	1·3;	329;	70;	181	Khallar;	0·1
Khāmborā—Acr.—खांबोरा ..	SW;	6·0	0·6;	114;	24;	58	Chamak Bk;	1·0
Khānampūr—Dyr.—खानमपूर ..	N;	21·0	1·1;	1156;	226;	550	Local;	..
Khānapūr—Dyr.—खानपूर ..	SW;	10·0	1·4;	349;	77;	142	Nalvada;	0·4
Khānāpūr—Acr.—खानापूर ..	W;	3·0	0·8;	79;	17;	52	Achalpur;	3·0
Khānāpūr—Acr.—खानापूर ..	S;	4·0	0·9;	66;	13;	23	Achalpur;	2·0
Khānāpūr—Acr —खानापूर ..	S;	..	0·8;	93;	25;	44	Savalapur;	..
Khānāpūr—Amt.—खानापूर ..	N;	10·0	3·1;	408;	86;	210	Nandura Bk;	2·0
Khānāpūr—Amt.—खानापूर ..	S;	37·0	0·8;	442;	104;	247	..	..
Khānāpūr—Cdr.—खानापूर ..	N;	18·0	0·5;	115;	25;	63	Jhada;	1·4
Khānāpūr—Cdr.—खानापूर ..	NW;	10·0	0·5;	66;	16;	38	Dhanora Mogal;	2·0
Khānāpūr—Msi.—खानापूर .	W;	4·0	4·7;	2245;	521;	1054	Local;	..
Khānāpūr—Msi.—खानापूर ..	E;	31·0	0·9;	271;	61;	138	Rajura;	4·0
Khaṇḍāḷā Kh.—Amt.—खंडाळा खु.	SE,	22·0	1·7;	420,	101;	225	..	..
Khañjīrpūr—Msi.—खंजीरपूर ..	W;	18·0	0·3;	302;	75;	130	Belora;	..
Khāparakheḍā—Mlg.—खापरखेडा	SW;	8·0	2·8;	674;	127;	370	Sadrabadi;	4·0
Khāparakheḍā—Msi.—खापरखेडा	NE;	32·0	2·0;	43;	7;	23	Pusala;	3·0
Kharabī—Amt.—खरबी ..	SW;	11·0	0·8;	99;	17;	46	Phul Amla;	0·4
Kharabī—Amt.—खरबी ..	S;	28·0	1·2;	1;	1;	..	Papal;	1·0
Kharabī Guṇḍ—Cdr.—खरबी गुंड	S;	16·0	1·7;	107;	25;	68	Chikhali-vaidhy;	3·0
Kharabī Māṇḍavgaḍ—Cdr.—खरबी मांडवगड ..	S;	14·4	0·6;	143;	34;	63	Yerad;	0·1
Kharāḷā—Acr.—खराळा ..	E;	18·0	4·1;	1492;	340;	583	Local;	..
Kharapī—Acr.—खरपी ..	NE;	5·0	7·2;	866;	177;	411	Karajganv;	3·0
Khār Taḷegāṅv—Amt.—खार तळेगांव. ..	E;	12·0	..	2710;	583;	2100	Local;	..

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Pandarana;	35·0	Benoda;	4·0; Sat.	Barganv;	1·0	W;w	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Takali;	1·0	Ganori;	2·0; Tue.	..	7·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kokarda;	8·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	w;rv.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); pyt; 2 Cs (2c); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 7 tl; mq; dg; gym; 2 lib; dp.
Kokarda;	8·0	Khallar;	0·1; Wed.	..	0·3	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kushta Bk;	1·0	Chamak Bk;	1·0; Fri.	Achalpur;	6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Anjanganv Surji;	3·0	Anajanganv Surji;	3·0; Mon.	Stage;	0·1	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Kokarda;	8·0	Nalvada;	0·4; Tue.	..	4·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Achalpur;	..	Achalpur;	3·0; Thu.	..	..	W;w.	
Navbag;	2·0	Achalpur;	2·0; Sun.	Achalpur;	4·0	W.	tl.
Achalpur;	17·0	Savalapur;	.. Sun.	..	..	W;w.	tl.
Amravati;	8·0	Nandganv peth;	5·0; Fri.	..	5·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; 2 Cch.
Badnera;	3·0	Salod ;	3·0; Fri.	..	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m; 2 Cch.
Taleni;	6·0	Mangrul-Dastagir;	2·0; Wed.	..	..	W.	tl.
Malkhed;	6·0	Dhanora Mogal;	2·0; Mon.	Nandganv;	4·0	W.	tl.
Amravati;	37·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Stage nearby;	..	W; w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; dg; gym; dp.
Katol;	20·0	Rajura Bazar;	4·0; Thu.	Vathoda;	2·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; dg; ch.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora;	.. Fri.	Rithapur;	3·0	W,w.	Included in Belora village.
Tukaithad;	4·0	Dedtalai;	3·0; Sun.	Dhulghat;	6·0	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Pandurana;	17·0	Pusala;	3·0; Tue.	..	3·0	W;rv.	tl.
Takali;	3·0	Badnera;	10·0; Mon.	..	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	18·0	Papal;	1·0; Sun.	..	..	W.	2 tl.
Chandur;	16·0	Selu ;	.. Mon.	..	4·0	W;w.	tl.
Chandur;	12·0	Yerad;	0·1; Fri.	Shivani-Rasulapur;	8·0	rv.	
Amravati;	19·0	Chandur Bazar;	4·0; Sun.	..	0·3	W;w.	2sl (pr); Cs (c); 8 tl, m; mq; dg; ch; lib.
Achalpur;	5·0	Paratvada;	4·0; Thu.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); 2 tl; mq; dg; lib; Cch.
Amravati;	12·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Local;	.. ..	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 8 tl; mq; dh; lib; 3 dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Kharavāḍī—Acr.—खरवाडी ..	E;	16·0	1·9;	876;	199;	369	Kharala;	0·4
Khardā—Cdr.—खर्डा ..	E;	18·0	1·6;	383;	89;	208	Pulganv;	6·0
Khārī—Mlg.—खारी ..	NE;	8·0	1·9;	448;	81;	212	Sadrabadi;	3·0
Khāryā Tembharu—Mlg.—खाऱ्या टेंभरू.	NW;	5·0	3·3;	435,	79;	258	Dharni;	3·0
Khāsapūr—Dyr.—खासपूर ..	S;	9·0	1·2;	364;	76;	167	Kokarda;	0·3
Khatijāpūr—Acr.—खतिजापूर ..	W;	9·0	1·2;	60;	14;	29	Parsapur;	1·0
Kheḍ—Msi.—खेड ..	W;	13·0	8·6;	2424;	604;	994	Local;	..
Kheḍ Pimprī—Amt.—खेड पिंप्री	S;	24·0	2·1;	628;	125;	373	Pimpalganv-Nipani;	2·0
Kheḍī—Msi.—खेडी ..	SE;	24·0	1·2;	5;	5;	4	..	2·0
Khel Bābujī—Dyr.—खेल बाबुजी	..	..	..	20;	5;	..	..	..
Khel Bābujī—Dyr.—खेल बाबुजी	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Bāgāḍ—Acr.—खेल बागाड	..	..	0·2;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Bāgī—Acr.—खेल बागी ..	..	..	0·5;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Bhālerāv—Acr.—खेल भालेराव ..	..	..	0·3;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Bhoṇḍe Boṇḍe—Acr.—खेल भोंडे बोंडे .	S;	2·0	0·8;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Bocā—Acr.—खेल बोचा ..	..	..	12·7;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Caudhar Karajgānv—Acr. खेल चौधर करजगाव	E;	8·0	1·5;	4268;	910;	1449	Local;	..
Khel Devamāḷī—Acr.—खेल देवमाळी .	NE;	0·2	0·8;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Gangājī—Dyr.—खेल गंगाजी	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Gujar—Acr.—खेल गुजर ..	E;	1·0	0·7;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Ghumaṭ—Acr.—खेल घुमट	SE;	2·0	0·7;	Included in Urban Area II.				
Khel Hāgone—Dyr.—खेल हागोने	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Hirājī—Dyr.—खेल हिराजी	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Hoḍole—Dyr.—खेल होडोले	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Jānujī Caudhar Kurhā—Acr.—खेल जानुजी चौधर कुऱ्हा	W;	8·0	1·3;	694;	140;	243	Khel Januji Deshamukh;	0·1
Khel Jānujī Deśamukh Kurhā—Acr.—खेल जानुजी देशमुख कुऱ्हा	W;	8·0	1·7;	421;	112;	176	Local;	..
Khel Khaḍse—Dyr.—खेल खडसे	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Khuśāl Kurhā—Acr.—खेल खुशाल कुऱ्हा	SE;	8·0	1·9;	626;	136;	278	Khel Januji Deshmukh Kurha;	

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Amravati;	19·0	Chandur Bazar.	4·0; Sun.	Local;		W;w	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Pulganv;	6·0	Pulganv;	6·0; Mon.	..	10·0	W.	tl.
Tukaithad;	11·0	Dedtalai;	6·0; Sun.	Dedtalai;	4·0	W;n.	tl.
Tukaithad;	20·0	Dharni;	3·0; Fri.	Dharni;	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kokarda;	2.0	Kokarda;	0·3; Fri.	Daryapur;	9·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); tl ; m;
Achalpur;	8·0	Parsapur;	1 0; Tue.	Parsapur;	2·0	w.	tl.
Amravati;	32·0	Local; ..	Mon.	..	2 4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr., m); pyt; Cs, 10 tl; mq; lib; 4 dp.
Badnera;	18·0	Vadhona Ramnath;	4·0; Mon.	Papal;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Mulatai;	24·0	Shendurjana,	2·0; Fri.	Shendurjana;	2 0	rv.	
..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	W.	
Achalpur;	10 0	Paratvada;	8·0; Thu.	Local;	.	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; m; 2 mq; ch; 6 dp.
..	..						
..	..						
Achalpur;	7·0	Khel Januji Deshamukha;	0·1; Wed.	Karajganv;	2 0	W;w	2 Sl (pr); 3 tl; dp.
..	7.0	Khel Khushal Kurha;	0·2; Wed.	..	2·0	W;w.	2 tl.
.	7·0	Local; ..	Wed.	..	2·0	W; v.	2 Sl (pr, m); Maruti Fr Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; m, mq; dg.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Khel Kokāṭ—Dyr.—खेल कोकाट	..	..	0·8;	6;	2;	1	..	..
Khel Kokāṭ—Dyr.—खेल कोकाट	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Kṛṣṇājī—Dyr.—खेल कृष्णाजी	..	..	1·9;	10;	6;	3	..	..
Khel Kṛṣṇājī—Dyr.—खेल कृष्णाजी	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.					
Khel Mahāl Karajagāṅv—Acr.—खेल महाल करजगांव	E;	8·0	1·5;	4446;	1058;	1786	Local;	..
Khel Nāgave—Dyr.—खेल नागवे	E;	14·0	0·9;	175;	38;	71	..	..
Khel Sakhārām—Acr.—खेल सखाराम.	W;	8·0	1·7;	413;	102;	184	Khel Januji Deshamukha Kurha;	0·2
Khel Tapamāḷī—Acr.—खेल तपमाळी	S;	0·2	4·3;	69;	17;	19	Paratvada;	1·0
Khel Tapamāḷī—Acr.—खेल तपमाळी	..	..	Included in Urban Area II.					
Khel Ṭekāḍ—Acr.—खेल टेकाड	..	..	0·9; Included in Urban Area II.					
Khel Trimbak Nārāyaṇ—Acr.—खेल त्रिंबक नारायण	S;	..	1·9; Included in Urban Area II.					
Khiḍakī Kalam—Mlg.—खिडकी-कलम	..	24·0	2·7;	240;	49;	155	Dharni;	22·0
Khiraḍā—Dyr.—खिराडा	N;	22·0	1·9;	588;	131;	274	Nimkhed Bazar,	1·0
Khiragavhāṇ—Dyr.—खिरगव्हाण	W;	13·0	1·4;	216;	51;	101	Nimbhari;	1·0
Khiragavhāṇ—Dyr.—खिरगव्हाण	NW;	10·0	0·9;	46;	9;	23	Nalwada;	3·0
Khojāmapūr—Acr.—खोजामपूर	S;	3·0	3·9;	114;	22;	47	Chamak Bk.;	1·0
Kholāpūr—Amt.—खोलापूर	NW;	20·0	5554;	6397;	1200;	2153	Local;	..
Khopaḍā—Msi.—खोपडा	S;	11·0	1·8;	711;	170;	365	Nimbhi;	3·0
Khuḍāvanapūr—Dyr.—खुडावनपूर	SE;	16·0	0·9;	423;	80;	175	Local;	..
Khuḍāvantpūr—Acr.—खुदावंतपूर	W;	4·0	0·6;	9;	2;	4	..	..
Khunhāvantpūr—Cdr.—खुन्हावंतपूर	W;	..	0·6;	1;	1;	1	..	..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Achalpur; 10·0	Paratvada; 8·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;w.	7 Sl (3 pr, 2 m, 2 h); 3 Cs; Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Pournima; 7 tl; m; dg; gym; ch; lib; 3 dp.
Banosa; 14·0	.. .. ..	.. ..	w;rv.	tl.
.. 7·0	Khel Khushal Kurha; 0·2; Wed.	.. 2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; m.
Achalpur; 1·4	Achalpur Camp; 1·4; Thu.	.. ..	..	
Tukaithad; 6·0	Raytali; 7·0; Sat.	.. ..	W.	
Anjanganv; 5·0	Nimkhed Bazar; 1·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Kapus Talani; 2·0	Nimbhari; 1·0; Sat.	.. 4·0	W;rv.	tl.
Kokarda; 7·0	Khallar; 2·0; Wed.	.. 9·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Chamak Bk.; 3·0	Paratvada; 9·0; Tue.	Achalpur; 3·0	W;w.	tl.
Banosa; 13·0	Daryapur; 1·0; Fri.	Local; ..	rv.	8 Sl (4 pr, 3 m, h); Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Sud. 11; 11 tl; m; 6 mq; 2 dg; dh; 2 lib; 2 dp; Cch.
.. ..	.. 2·0; Sat.	.. ..	W;w, rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Nagdev Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 2 tl.
Kapus Talani; 3·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Cs (c); tl.
.. 4·0	Paratvada; 3·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;w.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Khurasanapūr—Dyr.—खुरसनपूर	..	4·0	1·2;	473;	113;	208	Leheganv;	..
Khurmābād—Dyr.—खुर्माबाद ..	N;	6·0	1·7;	333;	78;	156	Leheganv;	2·0
Kirjavaḷā—Cdr.—किरजवळा ..	S;	12·0	3·1;	414;	90;	222	Sultanpur;	1·0
Kodarī—Amt.—कोदरी ..	S;	19·0	1·4;	388;	95;	206	Dhanora Gurav;	2·0
Kodarī Harak—Cdr.—कोदरी हरक	NW;	9·0	1·3;	155;	41;	94	Dhanora Mogal;	0·5
Kodorī—Acr.—कोदोरी ..	NE;	19·0	1·9;	144;	29;	59	Deurvada;	2·0
Kohaḷā—Amt.—कोहळा ..	S;	19·0	3·9;	708;	153;	420	Pimpari Nipani;	2·0
Kokarḍā—Dyr.—कोकर्डा ..	S;	9·0	1·7;	1273;	293;	540	Local;	..
Koḷambī—Dyr.—कोळंबी ..	N;	7·4	2·3;	580;	145;	309	Kanholi;	..
Kolaṭek—Amt.—कोलटेक ..	S;	12·0	0·9;	271;	50;	118	Bhatkuli;	2·0
Koḷavaṇ—Cdr.—कोळवण ..	N;	27·0	1·6;	1;	1;	1	Satarganv;	1·0
Koḷavaṇ—Cdr.—कोळवण ..	N;	32·0	2·3;	36;	7;	21	Sirajganv;	2·0
Koḷavihīr—Msi.—कोळविहीर ..	W;	12·0	3·2;	748;	170;	359	Ashtoli;	2·0
Kolhā—Acr.—कोल्हा ..	S;	13·0	3·0;	1336;	320;	646	Local;	..
Koṇḍavardhā—Acr.—कोंडवर्धा ..	E;	8·0	2·9;	518;	119;	284	Kurha;	2·0
Konher (M. M.)—Cdr.—कोन्हेर (मु. म.) ..	E;	18·0	1·1;	484;	125;	258	Mund Nilkantha Sakharam;	..
Koparā—Acr.—कोपरा ..	NW;	6·0	0·8;	86;	20;	40	Bhilona;	1·0
Koraḍā—Mlg.—कोरडा ..	..	..	2·9;	364;	71;	179	..	..
Koṭ—Mlg.—कोट ..	SE;	16·0	2·5;	178;	31;	96	Harisal;	5·0
Kotagāvaṇḍī—Acr.—कोतगावंडी	SE;	14·0	2·9;	347;	71;	157	Tuljapur Gadhi;	1·4
Koṭamī—Mlg.—कोटमी ..	..	..	2·7;	526;	82;	297	..	..
Kotegānv—Dyr.—कोतेगांव ..	N;	8·0	2·1;	1119;	259;	491	Kokarda;	0·4
Koṭhā—Dyr.—कोठा ..	SE;	12·0	0·7;	192;	41;	86	Kamalpur;	0·4
Koṭhā—Mlg.—कोठा ..	..	..	3·5;	232;	46;	66	Harisal;	3·0
Kauḍaṇyapūr—Cdr.—कौडण्यपूर ..	NE;	18·0	2·3;	593;	120;	292	Murtijapur;	2·0
Koyalārī—Mlg.—कोयलारी ..	..	..	1·1;	288;	56;	142	Katkumbha;	1·0
Kṛṣṇāpūr—Acr.—कृष्णापूर .	SE;	15·0	0·4;	664;	129;	291	Saur;	2·0
Kṛṣṇāpūr—Amt.—कृष्णापूर ..	W;	8·0	0·3;	81;	16;	33	Alanganv;	2·0
Kṛṣṇāpūr—Amt.—कृष्णापूर ..	W;	8·0	1·3;	237;	62;	124	..	..
Kuberī—Dyr.—कुबेरी ..	NW;	10·0	0·8;	243;	61;	122	Umri Mamdabad;	0·½

Railway Station; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Leheganv; 1·0	Leheganv; .. Tue·	Daryapur; 4·0	W	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Leheganv; 1·4	Banosa; 6·0; Thu.	Daryapur; 6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Chandur; 12·0	Bori; 2·0; Tue·	Shivani; 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera; 10·0	Mahuli Chor; 3·0; Tue.	Dhanora Gurav; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Malkhed; 7·0	Dhanora Mogal; 0·5; Mon.	Nandganv; 4·0	..	tl.
Achalpur; 19·0	Deurvada; 2·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	W.	2 tl; m.
Badnera; 11·0	Dhanora Phasi; 2·0; Thu.	.. 6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman Jayanti Ct. Sud 15; 2 tl.
Local; ..	Local; .. Fri.	Daryapur; 9·0	w;rv.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (c); Mahadevpuri Fr. Vsk. Sud. 15; 3 tl; dp.
Kokarda; 6·0	Kokarda; 4·0; Fri.	.. 1·4	w;rv·	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl.
Amravati; 12·0	Bhatkuli; 2·0; ..	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl
Chandur; 25·0	Satarganv; 1·0; ..	.. 24·0	W.	tl.
Amravati; 22·0	Sirajganv; 2·0; Wed·	Mojhari; 4·0	W.	tl.
Amravati; 25·0	Local; .. Fri.	Nearby; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m.
Kushta Bk.; 6·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; 2 m; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Achalpur; 12·0	Taleganv; 2·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Talani; 5·0	Mund Nilkantha Sakharam; .. Wed.	.. ..	W.	
Kushta; 3·0	Vadganv; 3·0; Sun.	Paratvada; 5·0	W;w.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ·	..	
Tukaithad; 36·0	Harisal; 5·0; Wed.	Harisal; 5·0	n.	Holi Fr. Phg.
Achalpur; 12·0	Tuljapur-Gadhi; 1·4; Tue.	.. 5·0	w;rv·	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	
Kokarda; 2·0	Kokarda; 0·4; Fri.	Khallar; 6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr), Cs (c); 3 tl.
Kokarda; 6·0	Kokarda; 4·0; Fri.	Khallar; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tukaithad; 35·0	Hairsal; 3·0; Wed.	..	..	
Arvi; 6·0	Deurvada; 0·1; Mon.	.. 6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 14 tl; dh; ch; lib.
Elichpur, 51·0	Katkumbha; 1·0; Thu.	.. ..	..	
Amravati; 18·0	Local; .. Wed.	Aseganv; 4·0	W;w.	Cs; tl; lib.
Badnera; 8·0	Bhatkuli; 2·0 Fri.	Nimbha; 0·5	W.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 6·0	W.	tl.
Kokarda; 5·0	Umri Mamdabad; 0·½; Sat	Yewda; 4·0	w;rv.	tl; m.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Kukasā—Dyr.—कुकसा	E;	6·0	1·2;	179;	40;	74	Kalashi;	1·0
Kulāṅganā Bk.—Mlg.—कुलांगना बु.	..	..	3·3;	133;	24;	54	Gaulakheda;	2·4
Kulāṅganā Kh.—Mlg.—कुलांगना खु.	..	..	2·0;	444;	77;	257	Gaulakheda;	2·0
Kumadarā—Msi.—कुमदरा	NE;	14·0	1·1;	91;	19;	56	Jamganv;	2·0
Kumāgaḍ—Amt.—कुमागड	E;	12·0	1·4;	371;	73;	202	Mhaispur;	2·0
Kumbhāragāṅv Bk.—Dyr.—कुंभारगांव बु.	SE;	12·0	0·7;	175;	49;	82	Local;	..
Kumbhāragāṅv Kh.—Dyr.—कुंभारगांव खु.	NW;	11·0	0·7;	1064;	232;	503	Local;	..
Kumbhī—Acr.—कुंभी	N;	4·0	0·3;	223;	42;	102	Gaurakheda;	0·3
Kuṇḍ Kh.—Amt.—कुंड खु.	W;	6·0	1·3;	476;	114;	212	Amravati;	6·0
Kuṇḍ Sarjāpūr—Amt.—कुंड सर्जापूर	W;	6·4	1·8;	477;	99;	206	Sukali;	3·0
Kuraḷ—Acr.—कुरळ	E;	11·0	3·4;	1008;	252;	374	Local;	..
Kuraḷī—Msi.—कुरळी	E;	24·0	0·9;	918;	202;	411	Surali;	0·2
Kuraṇakheḍ—Acr.—कुरणखेड	NE;	24·0	2·4;	435;	96;	211	Ghataladaki;	2·0
Kurhā—Cdr.—कुऱ्हा	N;	11·0	8·2;	5809;	1227;	2145	Local;	..
Kurhāḍ—Amt.—कुऱ्हाड	SE;	13·0	0·9;	123;	29;	61	Paradi;	1·0
Kuṣṭā Bk.—Acr.—कुष्टा बु.	S;	8·0	1·8;	1064;	237;	461	Local;	..
Kuṣṭā Kh.—Acr.—कुष्टा खु.	S;	8·0	0·6;	548;	120;	238	Kushta Bk.;	0·½
Kusumkoṭ Bk.—Mlg.—कुसुमकोट बु.	SW;	2·0	2·0;	835;	163;	334	Kalamkhar;	2·0
Kusumkoṭ Kh.—Mlg.—कुसुमकोट खु.	W;	1·0	2·1;	351;	65;	177	Kalamkhar;	2·4
Kuṭaṅgā—Mlg.—कुटंगा	N;	20·0	2·0;	597;	91;	306	Dharni;	24·0
Laḍakī—Msi.—लडकी	S;	11·0	2·7;	1120;	250;	474	Nimbhi;	1·0
Lākaṭū—Mlg.—लाकटू	S;	13·0	3·2;	205;	34;	117	Sadrabadi;	4·0
Lākhanavāḍī—Acr.—लाखनवाडी	NE;	7·0	1·6;	493;	102;	233	Kavitha Bk.;	1·4
Lākhanavāḍī—Dyr.—लाखनवाडी	N;	9·0	2·7;	954;	211;	432	Kokarda;	0·2

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
..	3·0	Kalashi;	1·0; Wed.	Daryapur;	6·0	rv.	tl.
Achalpur;	16·0	Gaulakheda;	2·4; Tue.	..		W.	
Achalpur;	15·0	Gaulakheda;	2·0; Tue.	..	..	W.	
Pandurana;	28·0	Jamganv;	2·0; Wed.	..	3·0	rv.	
Amravati;	14·0	Dhanori;	2·0; Sun.	Dhanori;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; mq.
Kokarda;	4·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Yewda;	6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Chandrabai Fr. Ps. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Kapus Talani;	5·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Daryapur;	11·0	W;w.	Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (2 c); dp.
Elichpur;	2·4	Achalpur Camp;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	mq.
Amravati;	6·0	Amravati;	6·0; Sun.	..	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	6·0	Amravati;	6·0; Sun.	..	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Achalpur;	15·0	Chandur Bazar;	5·0; Sun.	..	4·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl; mq; lib; dp.
Narkhed;	19·0	Varud;	3·0; Wed.	..	0·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; tl.
Achalpur;	25·0	Ghataladaki;	2·0; Sat.	..	12·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Chandur;	11·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Local;	..	W;w	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; 10 tl; 2 mq; 4 dg; gym; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Timtala;	2·0	Paradi;	1·0; Sun.	Badnera;	8·0	W.	tl.
Kushta Patali;	2·0	Local;	.. Sun.	..	..	W;w	Sl (pr); Cs; Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; mq; 2 dp.
Kushta Patali;	0·3	Kushta Bk;	.. Sun.	..	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs (2 c); Hanuman Jayanti Fr. Ct. Sud 15; tl; lib; dp.
Tukaithad;	20·0	Dharni;	2·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; 2 mq.
Tukaithad;	21·0	Dharni;	2·0; Fri.	Dharni;	1·0	W.	tl.
Tukaithad;	44·0	Bairagad;	4·0; Mon.	Dharni;	21·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Amravati;	30·0	Shirkhed;	2·0; Fri.	Nimbhi;	1·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; m; mq; dg; ch.
Tukaithad;	15·0	Susarda;	3·0; Wed.	Dedtalai;	6·0	rv.	
Achalpur;	5·4	Kavitha Bk;	1·4; Mon.	..	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Khushalbaba Fr. Ct. Vad. 13; 3 tl.
Kokarda;	2·2	Kokarda;	0·2; Fri.	..	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Lāsūr—Dyr.—लासूर ..	SW;	8·0	3·5;	681;	161;	368	Dhamodi;	4·0
Lakhāḍ—Dyr.—लखाड ..	N;	22·0	2·6;	994;	211;	376	Anjanganv;	4·0
Lavādā—Mlg.—लवादा ..	E;	9·0	2·9;	315;	56;	193	Dharni;	9·0
Lehegāṅv—Dyr.—लेहेगांव ..	N;	4·0	1·7;	846;	185;	450	Local;	..
Lehegāṅv—Msi.—लेहेगांव ..	S;	11·0	1·4;	502;	104;	170	Local;	..
Lihīdā—Msi.—लिहीदा ..	SE;	10·0	0·8;	731;	164;	356	Vadhona;	1·4
Liṅgā—Msi.—लिगा ..	E;	38·0	5·3;	1054;	233;	486	Local;	..
Loharājpūr—Dyr.—लोहराजपूर..	NW;	14·0	1·2;	304;	59;	123	Chincholi Bk.;	2·0
Lohegāṅv—Amt.—लोहेगांव ..	S;	27·0	3·5;	1088;	257;	635	Pimpalganv Nipani;	2·0
Lohītakheḍ—Dyr.—लोहीतखेड ..	W;	11·0	0·3;	194;	50;	89	Ramtirth;	1·0
Lonaṭek—Amt.—लोनटेक ..	W;	3·0	2·1;	314;	65;	197	Kavatha;	3·0
Loṇi—Amt.—लोणी ..	N;	12·0	5·2;	1718;	399;	704	Local;	..
Loṇī—Msi.—लोणी ..	E;	14·0	4·8;	4574;	1048;	2112	Local;	..
Lotavāḍā—Dyr.—लोतवाडा ..	W;	11·0	4·6;	941;	210;	434	Bhamod;	2·0
Mādhān—Acr.—माधान ..	E;	18·0	2·8;	1273;	260;	395	Local;	..
Mahājanapūr—Amt.—महाजनपूर..	..	..	Included in Urban Area I				..	..
Mahājanapūr (Rural Area)—Amt—महाजनपूर (ग्रामीण विभाग)	SW;	1·2	0·6;	4;	1;	3	Amravati;	1·0
Mahāpūr—Msi.—महापूर ..	E;	22·5	0·4;	15;	4;	9	Varud;	0·5
Mahimāpūr—Cdr.—महिमापूर ..	E;	14·0	1·0;	200;	56;	125	Vadhona;	2·0
Mahimāpūr—Dyr.—महिमापूर ..	SE;	17·0	1·9;	378;	77;	187	Yesurni;	3·0
Māhulī—Dyr.—माहुली ..	E;	5·4	2·5;	709;	151;	300	Local;	..
Māhulī Jāgīr—Amt—माहुली जागीर ..	N;	11·4	7·4;	3459;	802;	1482	Local;	..
Māhulī Cor—Amt.—माहुली चोर..	S;	14·0	6·7;	1872;	431;	806	Local;	..
Makrampūr—Acr.—मकमपूर ..	E;	8·0	0·9;	9;	3;	5	..	..
Makrampūr—Amt.—मकमपूर ..	NW;	14·4	1·1;	107;	15;	55	Ashti;	2·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Banosa;	8·0	Karatkheda;	3·0; Tue.	Daryapur;	8·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Mahadev Fr Ct Sud. 12; 2 tl.
Anjanganv;	4·0	Anjanganv;	4·0; Mon.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (fmg, mis); tl; mq; lib.
Tukaithad;	29·0	Dharni;	9·0; Fri.	Local;	..	W.	
Local;	..	Local,	.. Tue.	..	..	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Cs (c); 4 tl; lib.
Amravati;	23·0	Shirkhed;	0·4; Fri.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; dh; lib.
Amravati;	27·0	Nerpingalai;	2·4; Thu.	Shirkhed;	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pandurana;	10·0	Mohad;	4·0; Wed.	..	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); tl.
Kapus Talani;	3·0	Murha Bk.;	.. Sun.	Anjanganv;	6 0	W;rv.	
Badnera;	21·0	Vadhona Ramnath;	2·0; Mon	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dp.
Banosa;	1·0	Karatkheda;	0·1; Tue.	Daryapur;	11·0	w;rv.	tl
Amravati;	3·0	Amravati; 3·0;	Wed; Sun.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	6·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl; mq; dg; dh; ch; 2 lib.
Pandurana;	32·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Benoda;	6·0	W;w	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); Cs; 10 tl; mq; 2 dh; gym; 2 lib; ch; 3 dp.
Daryapur;	11·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Akot;	4·0	rv	Sl (pr); Vitthal Fr. Asd. Vad. 11; 4 tl.
Amravati;	26·0	Chandur-Bazar;	3·0; Sun.	Chandur-Bazar;	3·0	W;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 2 Cs; Gulabrao Maharaj Fr. Kt. Sud. 11; 7 tl; dg; dp.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..		
Amravati;	1·0	Amravati; 1·0;	Sun; Wed.	Amravati,	1·0	w.	
Pandurana;	22·0	Varud;	0·5; Wed.	Varud;	0·5	w.	
Dhamanganv;	6·0	Taleganv;	2·0; Mon.	Taleganv;	2·0	W.	tl.
Kokarda;	14·0	Rangar-Vasani;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Banosa;	5·0	Banosa;	5·0; Thu.	..	5·0	rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 5 tl.
Amravati;	12·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Local;	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Hanuman Saptaha Fr. Mg. Sud. Chaturdashi, 7 tl; m; 2 mq; 2 dg; dh; gym; 5 lib; dp.
Timtala;	4·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Local;	..	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 5 tl; dp.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	w.	tl.
Amravati;	16·0	Ashti;	2·0; Fri.	..	1·0	w.	2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Makrandābād—Amt.—मकंदाबाद ..	SE; 17·0	0·9; 149; 31; 58	Thuganv; 0·1
Māladhūr—Cdr.—मालधूर ..	N; 18·0	3·1; 230; 53; 119	Sirajganv; 2·0
Malakāpūr—Amt.—मलकापूर ..	W; 16·0	0·8; 220; 41; 117	Dhanori; 0·1
Malakāpūr—Amt.—मलकापूर ..	S; 7·0	0·4; 7; 3; 1	Nandura Bk.; 2·0
Malakāpūr—Amt —मलकापूर ..	SW; 5·0	0·8; 679; 166; 344	Kavatha; 1·0
Malakāpūr—Amt.—मलकापूर ..	S; 36·0	0·5; 34; 9; 21	.. ..
Malakāpūr—Mlg.—मलकापूर ..	.. ..	0·6; 215; 39; 106	Gaulakheda; 0·4
Malakāpūr—Msi.—मलकापूर ..	.. ..	Included in Urban Area III	
Malakāpūr—Msi.—मलकापूर ..	.. ..	1·1; 18; 7; 18	.. ..
Malakāpūr Bk.—Dyr.—मलकापूर ..	.. 12·0	1·3; 202; 47; 101	Khallar; 0·4
Malakāpūr—Kh.—Dyr.—मलकापूर खु. ..	S; 9·0	1·2; 386; 94; 207	Kokarda; 0·3
Mālakhed—Cdr.—मालखेड ..	W; 7·0	9·2; 2928; 660; 1285	Local; ..
Mālakhed—Msi.—मालखेड ..	NE; 26·0	2·4; 746; 153; 394	Varud; 4·0
Malātapūr—Cdr.—मलातपूर ..	SE; 17·0	2·2; 389; 102; 235	Jalaka; 2·0
Mālegāṅv—Amt.—मालेगांव ..	NW; 20·0	2·5; 96; 25; 47	Kekatpur; 2·0
Mālegāṅv—Amt.—मालेगांव ..	SE; 8·0	2·0; 27; 7; 16	Amravati; 8·0
Mālegāṅv—Amt.—मालेगांव ..	S; ..	2·7; 397; 94; 200	.. ..
Mālegāṅv—Amt.—मालेगांव ..	S; 26·0	1·8; 51; 8; 18	Pimpalganv Nipani; 1·0
Mālegāṅv—Cdr.—माळेगांव ..	N; 10·0	5·9; 872; 181; 921	Varha; 4·0
Malhārā—Acr.—मल्हारा ..	N; 5·4	1·6; 701; 158; 426	Gaurkheda; 2·0
Malkāpūr—Dyr.—मल्कापूर ..	.. 23·0	1·3; 425; 98; 219	Hantoda; 3·0
Mālūr—Mlg.—मालूर ..	SE; 11·0	1·8; 154; 23; 91	Dharni; 10·0
Mamadāpūr—Msi.—ममदापूर ..	SW; 11·0	2·1; 1139; 250; 405	Local; ..
Mamadāpūr—Msi.—ममदापूर ..	W; 15·0	1·2; 9; 1; 8	Khed; 2·0
Mamadāpūr—Msi.—ममदापूर ..	NE; 9·0	1·1; 295; 58; 145	Loni; 4·0
Māmarābād—Dyr.—मामराबाद ..	N; 21·0	1·0; 652; 137; 302	Local; ..
Mamatāpūr—Cdr.—ममतापूर ..	SE; 2·0	0·8; 285; 61; 172	Varkhed; 6·0
Mānakāpūr—Msi.—मानकापूर ..	NE; 14·0	0·9; 132; 29; 64	Jamganv; 2·0
Māṇḍavā—Cdr.—मांडवा ..	E; 6·0	1·2; 446; 110; 229	Virul; 2·0
Māṇḍavā—Mlg.—मांडवा ..	S; 2·0	2·1; 451; 81; 293	Dharni; 2·0
Māṇḍū—Mlg.—मांडू ..	S; 5·0	1·3; 355; 64; 144	Dharni; 5·0
Maṅgarul—Msi.—मंगरूळ ..	S; 16·0	3·4; 608; 150; 284	Local; ..
Maṅgarul Cavāl—Amt.—मंगरूळ चवाळ	S; 30·0	4·1; 2448; 565; 1021	Local; ..

Railway Station; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Amravati;	17·0	Thuganv;	0·1; Fri.	..	1·0	w;rv.	tl.
Chandur;	23·0	Shendurjana;	4·0; Tue.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m.
Amravati;	14·0	Dhanori;	0·1; Sun.	..	0·6	W	tl.
Amravati;	7·0	Takali J;	.. Tue.	Nandganv Peth;	3·0	W.	
Badnera;	4·0	Amravati;	5·0; Sun; Wed.	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	5·0	rv.	tl; Cch.
Achalpur;	14·0	Gaulakheda;	0·4; Tue.	..	..	..	
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Kokarda;	3·0	Khallar;	0·4; Wed.	..	4·0	rv.	Cs (c).
Kokarda;	2·0	Kokarda;	0·3; Fri.	..	..	W	tl; m.
Local;	..	Local;	.. Tue.	..	..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 11 tl; mq; dg; 3 dp.
Pandurana;	20·0	Shendurjana;	2·0; Fri.	..	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Dhamanganv;	7·0	Jalaka;	2·0; Tue.	..	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl
Amravati;	21·0	Shivanganv;	2·4; Wed.	Shendola Kh;	2·0	W.	tl.
Amravati;	8·0	Amravati;	8·0; Wed; Sun.	Amravati;	8·0	W.	
..	..	..	.. ..	..	11·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	20·0	Pimpalganv Nipani;	1·0; Fri.	..	3·4	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur;	10·0	Varha;	4·0; Mon.	..	6·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; gym; lib.
Achalpur;	5·0	Paratvada;	4·0; Thu.	Stage Nearby;	..	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Anjanganv;	5·0	Sateganv;	2·0, Sun.	..	1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; 2 m
Tukaithad;	30·0	Dharni;	10·0; Fri	Lavada;	2·0	n.	
Amravati;	25·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Local;	..	W,w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; gym; lib.
Amravati;	45·0	Ladaki;	2·0; Sat.	..	..	rv.	
Pandurana;	24·0	Hivarkheda;	4·0; Mon.	..	4·0	W,w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Anjanganv;	3·0	Anjanganv;	3·0; Mon.	..	0·1	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m), 4 tl; m
Chandur;	28·0	Shendurjana;	6·0; Tue.	..	2·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Pandurana;	28·0	Benoda;	3·0; Sat.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl
Chandur;	5·0	Virul;	2·0; Fri.	..	6·0	w.	Sl (pr); 3tl.
Tukaithad;	20·0	Dharni;	2·0; Fri.	Dharni;	1·0	w;rv.	
Tukaithad;	17·0	Dharni;	5·0; Fri.	Dharni;	5·0	rv.	tl.
Amravati;	20·0	Sirajganv;	1·0; Sat.	Gorala;	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl.
Badnera;	25·0	Local;	.. Thu	..	2·0	W;rv.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 4 tl, mq; ch; lib; 2 dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Mangarul Dastagīr—Cdr.—मंगरूळ दस्तगीर ..	E; 20·0	5·5; 4432; 1022; 1872	Local; ..
Mangarulī—Msi.—मंगरूळी ..	W; 24·0	2·8; 1791; 372; 820	Local; ..
Mangonā—Msi—मांगोना ..	N; 19·0	0·7; 38; 8; 19	Benoda; 3·0
Manimapūr—Msi.—मनिमपूर ..	N; 1·0	0·3; 196; 56; 96	Morshi; 1·0
Māñjarakāpaḍī—Mlg.—मांजरकापडी	.. ..	1·4; 182; 32; 97	Gaulkheda; 0·4
Māñjarakheḍ—Cdr.—मांजरखेड ..	W; 3·0	5·6; 1316; 302; 600	Local; ..
Māñjarakheḍ—Cdr.—मांजरखेड ..	S; 9·0	1·1; 584; 131; 294	Nimgavhan; 2·0
Māñjarī—Amt.—मांजरी ..	SE; 16·0	2·0; 720; 167; 329	Local; ..
Mārḍā—Cdr.—मार्डा ..	NE; 15·0	3·5; 739; 187; 383	Murtijapur; 2·0
Mārḍī—Cdr.—मार्डी ..	SE; 10·0	9·2; 1143; 294; 511	Local; ..
Mārkaṇḍā—Acr.—मारकंडा ..	NE; 18·0	0·5; 1; 1; ..	Brahmanvada Thadi; 0·4
Mārakaṇḍā—Dyr.—मारकंडा ..	E; 17·0	1·3; 681; 158; 302	Local; ..
Mārkī—Amt.—मार्की .	NW; 15·4	2·1; 824; 178; 403	Thuganv; 2·0
Masadī—Cdr.—मसदी ..	N; 11·0	1·0; 123; 29; 58	Anjanvati; 1·0
Māsamāpūr—Dyr.—मासमापूर ..	NW; 20·0	1·2; 14; 4; 3	Bhandaraj; 2·0
Māsod—Acr.—मासोद ..	E; 9·0	2·0; 459; 94; 187	Kural; 2·0
Māsod—Amt.—मासोद ..	E; 5·0	4·0; 562; 139; 271	Tapovan; 2·0
Mastāpūr—Acr.—मस्तापूर ..	E; 14·0	1·2; 4; 3; 2	Talvel; 0·4
Māṭaragānv—Dyr.—माटरगांव ..	E; 11·0	2·7; 389; 73; 195	Nalvada; 2·0
Māyavāḍī—Msi.—मायवाडी ..	SE; 4·0	2·4; 310; 74; 167	Morshi; 4·0
Mu. A. Vyankaṭeś—Cdr.—मु. अ. व्यंकटेश.	E; 20·0	0·5; 1; 1; ..	.. ..
Mehendī—Msi—मेहेंदी ..	W; 33·0	3·7; 117; 29; 71	Pusala; 5·0
Meṇḍhī—Msi.—मेंढी ..	.. 28·0	1·0; 248; 54; 138	Chandas; 3·0
Meghanāthapūr—Acr.—मेंगनाथपूर	SE; 7·0	0·5; 194; 48; 111	Bhuganv; 2·0
Meṅgavāḍī—Msi.—मेंगवाडी ..	NE; 2·0	1·0; 270; 62; 113	Morshi; 2·0
Mhaisapūr—Amt.—म्हैसपूर ..	W; 17·0	2·5; 678; 140; 335	Local; ..
Mhaisapūr—Dyr.—म्हैसपूर ..	W; 11·0	1·0; 419; 90; 180	Nalvada; 1·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Talani; 6·0	Local; .. Wed.	Dhamanganv; 8·0	W.	5 Sl (3 pr, m, h); Cs; 14 tl; m; mq; 10 dg; gym; ch; lib; dp.
Pandurana; 25·0	Rajura; 2·0; Thu.	.. 4 0	W.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs; 4 tl; 4 m; ch; lib; dp.
Pandurana; 30·0	Benoda; 3·0; Sat.	Benoda; 2·0	W.	dg.
Amravati; 34·0	Morshi; 1·0; Tue.	Morshi; 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Achalpur; 14·0	Gaulkheda; 0·4; Tue.	.. ..	..	
Chandur; 4·0	Chandur; 4·0; Sun.	.. 0·1	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; m; mq; ch.
Chandur; 10·0	Ghuikhed; 2·0; Wed.	Ghuikhed; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; lib.
Timtala; 4·0	Mhasala; 0·1; Wed.	.. 7·0	w.	Cs (c); 2 tl.
Chandur; 14·0	Kurha; 4·0; Thu.	Kurha; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 3 tl.
Chandur; 10·0	Local; .. Sat.	Chirodi; 7·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 3 tl; 3 m, dg; lib.
Achalpur; 16·0	Brahmanvada-Thadi; 0·4; Thu.	.. 4·0	W;w.	tl.
Kokarda; 14·0	Vathoda Kh; 1·0; Mon.	.. 5·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr m); Cs (c); 3 tl; ch; lib.
Amravati; 15·0	Thuganv; 2·0; Fri.	Paratvada; 1·4	w.	Sl (pr); Marshinath Fr. Ct. Sud. 15, 6 tl; 2 m; lib.
Chandur; 9·0	Anjanvati; 1·0; Wed.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Bhandaraj; 2·0; Wed.	Local; .	W;w	tl; dg.
Achalpur; 12·0	Tuljapur-Gadhi; 2·0; Tue	.. 0·6	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Amravati; 6·0	Nandganv Peth; 4·0; Fri.	Amravati; 5 0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (mp); tl; lib.
Achalpur; 14·0	Talvel; 0·4; Fri.	.. 1·6	W	2 tl.
Banosa; 10·0	Darapur; 4·0; Fri.	Daryapur; 11·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl
Amravati; 40·0	Morshi; 4·0; Tue.	Morshi; 4·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	w.	
Pandurana, 9·0	Pusala; 5·0; Tue.	.. 0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Katol; 19·0	Rajura Bazar; 4·0; Thu	Chandas; 3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; m.
Achalpur; 8·0	Borganv Peth, 2·0; Thu.	.. 0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl
Amravati; 36·0	Morshi; 2·0; Tue.	Morshi; 2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl
Amravati; 17·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 0·7	W,w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kokarda; 8·0	Nalvada; 0·1; Tue.	.. 4·0	W,rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Mhaisapūr—Dyr.—म्हैसपूर ..	W;	9·0	1·4;	452;	100;	253	Bhamod;	0·4
Mhasalā—Amt.—म्हसला ..	E;	4·0	1·0;	440;	83;	10	Tapovan;	..
Mhasalā—Amt.—म्हसला ..	SE;	8·0	2·0;	8;	3;	6	Badnera;	2·0
Mhasalā—Amt.—म्हसला ..	E;	16·0	2·5;	685;	137;	297	Local;	..
Mhasonā—Acr.—म्हसोना ..	N;	6·0	2·5;	199;	41;	105	Gaurkheda;	3·0
Milānapūr—Msi.—मिलानपूर ..	E;	23·7	1·1;	1;	1;	1	Varud;	0·7
Mirjhāpūr—Amt.—मिर्झापूर ..	S;	22·0	1·4;	416;	91;	225	..	..
Mirajhāpūr—Cdr.—मिरझापूर ..	E;	12·0	1·2;	342;	82;	198	Dhamangānv;	..
Mirjhāpūr—Msi.—मिर्झापूर ..	W;	17·0	0·5;	201;	50;	90	Chandur-Bazar;	2·0
Mirjhāpūr Elorī—Dyr.—मिर्झापूर एलोरी.	SE;	20·0	1·1;	339;	73;	165	Nirul;	1·0
Mocakheḍā—Acr.—मोचखेडा ..	E;	10·0	1·2;	91;	21;	39	Taleganv,	2·0
Mogarā—Amt.—मोगरा ..	SE;	6·6	0·4;	311;	76;	178	Bhankheda Kh;	0·6
Mogardā—Mlg.—मोगर्दा ..	S;	10·0	3·5;	370;	75;	109	Dharni;	10·0
Mogrā—Cdr.—मोग्रा ..	S;	10·0	1·7;	220;	48;	106	Javala;	1·0
Mohabatapūr—Dyr.—मोहबतपूर	SE;	17·0	2·6;	434;	88;	178	Local;	..
Mojharī—Cdr.—मोझरी ..	N;	27·0	6·2;	4624;	991;	1500	Local;	..
Mokhā—Mlg.—मोखा ..	W;	7·0	1·6;	308;	57;	195	Dharni;	8·0
Mokhaḍ—Amt.—मोखड ..	SE;	18·0	3·6;	937;	225;	510	Local;	..
Moracūnd—Msi.—मोरचून्द ..	S;	28·0	1·3;	513;	99;	289	Pavani;	2·0
Moragaḍ—Mlg.—मोरगड ..	..	..	2·4;	347;	50;	200	Chikhaldara;	17·0
Morāṅgaṇā—Amt.—मोरांगना ..	W;	5·0	1·0;	45;	11;	27	Kavatha;	1·0
Morśī (Rural Area)—Msi.—मोर्शी (ग्रामीण विभाग).	..	..	4·3;	24;	8;	9	..	..
Morśī (Urban Area)—Msi.—मोर्शी (नागरी विभाग).	HQ;	..	5·97;	11946;	2641;	3400	Local;	..
Morśī Kh.—Msi.—मोर्शी खु. ..	E;	41·0	0·9;	148;	26;	89	Thuganv;	2·0
Mubārakgānv—Msi.—मुबारकगांव	SE;	20·0	0·8;	234;	57;	83	Belora;	..
Mukindapūr—Acr.—मुकिंदपूर ..	S;	8·0	0·8;	207;	42;	77	Borganv;	1·0
Mulphatapūr—Cdr.—मुलफतपूर ..	E;	24·0	0·9;	1;	1;	1	..	..

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Daryapur;	10·0	Bhamod;	0·4; Fri.	Dahihanda;	5·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	2·6	Amravati;	3·0; Sun; Wed.	Amravati;	3·0	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); tl; gym; dp.
Badnera;	2·0	Badnera;	2·0; Mon.	Badnera;	2·0	w.	tl.
Timtala;	4·0	Local;	.. Wed.	..	5·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; gym; ch; lib.
Achalpur;	6·0	Paratvada;	5·0; Thu.	..	4·0	W;w.	tl.
Pandurana;	23·0	Varud;	0·7; Wed.	Varud;	0 7	w.	..
..	..	..	.. ..	..	5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhamanganv;	2·0	Dhamanganv;	2·0; Sun.	..	2·0	W;w	2 tl.
Amravati;	21·0	Chandur Bazar	2·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl.
Daryapur;	17·0	Nirul;	1·0; ..	..	3·0	W; rv	Sl (pr); tl.
Achalpur;	12·0	Taleganv;	2·0; Fri.	..	..	W; n.	tl.
Malkhed;	3·0	Malkhed;	3·0; Tue.	Pohara;	3·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Dhulghat;	25·0	Baru;	2·0; Mon.	Dharni;	10·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur;	11·0	Ghuikhed;	2·0; Wed.	Chandur;	10·0	W;rv.	Cs; 4 tl.
Anjanganv;	2·0	Anjanganv;	2·0; Mon	..	2·0	W,w	tl; 2 lib.
Chandur;	27·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W;w.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 10 tl; 2 mq; dr; dh; 2 gym; lib; 2 dp.
Tukaithad;	19·0	Dharni;	8·0; Fri.	..	2·0	W.	..
Timtala;	8·0	Local;	.. Fri	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	2·0;	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 3 tl; dp.
Narkhed;	16·0	Rajura Bazar;	1·0; Thu.	.	2·0	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pathrot;	8·0	Pathrot;	6·0; Fri.	..	.	..	..
Badnera;	5·0	Badnera;	5 7; Mon; Fri.	..	1·0	W.	tl.
..	..	..	.. .	..	..	..	..
Amravati;	34·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Local,	.	W;w.	11 Sl (7 pr, 3 m, h); Cs (c); 16 tl; 5 m; 4 mq; 15 dg; 9 dp.
Katol;	12·0	Jalalkheda;	1·0; Fri; Mon.	Jalalkheda;	1·0	W.	..
Amravati;	20·0	Belora;	0·1; Fri.	..	4·0	W.	Included in Belora village.
Kuphta Bk.;	8·0	Raseganv;	3·0; Tue.	..	3·0	W;w.	tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	w.	tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Muṇḍamāḷ—Amt.—मुंडमाळ ..	SE;	22·0	0·7;	14;	3;	..	Nandaganv Khandeshvar;	1·0
Muṇḍaniśāṅk—Amt —मुंडनिशांक	S;	22·0	1·7;	4456;	1000;	1737	Local;	..
Muṇḍavāḍī—Amt.—मुंडवाडी ..	N;	19·2	2·0;	405;	94;	192	..	..
Murādapūr—Msi —मुरादपूर ..	W;	18·0	0·8;	21;	4;	5	Belora (Majara);	..
Murhā Bk.—Dyr.—मुऱ्हा बु. ..	NW;	14·0	2·2;	656;	135;	288	Chincholi Bk;	2·0
Murhā Kh.—Dyr.—मुऱ्हा खु. ..	NW;	14·0	1·1;	367;	85;	185	Chincholi Bk;	2·0
Murtijāpūr—Cdr.—मुर्तिजापूर ..	NE;	17·0	1·7;	745;	168;	408	Local;	..
Murtijāpūr—Cdr.—मुर्तिजापूर ..	S;	6·0	0·6;	198;	46;	98	Satephal;	3·0
Murtijāpūr—Dyr.—मुर्तिजापूर ..	W;	23·0	0·6;	188;	42;	74	Adaganv-Khade;	1·0
Musaḷakheḍ—Msi.—मुसळखेड ..	E;	28·6	1·9;	57;	13;	26	Chandas;	0·4
Nabābapūr—Acr.—नबाबपूर ..	SE;	5·3	1·0;	91;	19;	45	Bhuganv;	0·4
Nabāpūr—Dyr.—नबापूर .	NW;	20·0	1·0,	118;	28;	57	Bhandaraj;	2·0
Nāconā—Dyr.—नाचोना ..	N;	5·2	3.6;	787;	186;	373	Leheganv;	2·0
Nāgajharī—Amt.—नागझरी ..	S;	15·0	0·9;	79;	17;	39	Vadura;	3·0
Nāgajhirā—Mlg.—नागझिरा ..	SW;	18·0	4·7;	364;	75;	105	Sadrabadi;	8·0
Nāgajhirī—Msi —नागझिरी ..	NE;	13·0	2·0;	80;	19;	40	Jamganv;	1·0
Nāgāpūr—Cdr.—नागापूर ..	SE;	17·0	0·6;	367;	81;	146	Jalaka Patache;	3·0
Nāgāpūr—Mlg.—नागापूर ..	..	..	0·7;	383;	74;	208	Gaulkheda;	1·0
Nāgarvāḍī—Acr.—नागरवाडी ..	NE;	23·6	3·4;	1;	1;	..	Vani;	2·0
Nāgarvāḍī—Acr.—नागरवाडी ..	E;	3·0	0·5;	3,	1;	2	Paratvada;	4·0
Nāigāṅv—Dyr.—नायगांव ..	W;	9·0	1·0;	436;	97;	209	Arala;	1·0
Nāigāṅv—Acr.—नायगांव .	S·	5·4	1·9;	693;	164;	309	Bopapur;	2·0
Nāigāṅv—Cdr.—नायगांव ..	E;	22·0	1·5;	484;	108;	257	Mangrul Dastagir;	2·0
Najarapūr—Msi.—नजरपूर ..	W;	17·0	0·3;	194;	45;	86	Chandur Bazar;	2·0
Nālavāḍā—Dyr.—नालवाडा ..	E;	10·0	2·4;	748;	158;	279	Local;	..
Nāndagāṅv—Msi.—नांदगांव ..	NE;	13·0	1·4;	559;	124;	310	Gadeganv;	2·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Timtala;	8·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	1·0; Sat.	..	..	W.	..
Timtala;	8·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Local;	..	W.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); Cs; 6 tl; 2 m; mq; 2 dg; ch; 2 dp.
..	..	.. ..	..	..	2·2	W	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora (Majara);	Fri.	Rithapur;	3·0	W.	Included in Belora village.
Kapus Talani;	3·0	Local;	.. Sun	Anjanganv;	6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Singraji Maharaj Fr Ps. Sud. 9; Devi Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; lib.
Kapus Talani;	3·0	Murha Bk;	.. Sun.	Anjanganv;	6·0	W; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Chandur;	16·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Chandur;	6·0	Baggi;	.. Thu.	..	6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Manirám Maharaj Fr. Kt. Vad. Navami; 3 tl; m.
Anjanganv;	6·0	Sateganv;	3·0; Sun.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Narkhed;	12·0	Chandas;	0·4; Sat.	Vathoda;	0·6	W;rv.	3 tl.
Achalpur;	5·0	Bhuganv;	0·4; Sun	..	0·3	W;w	tl.
Anjanganv;	5·0	Bhandarraj;	2·0; Wed.	..	0·5	W;w.	tl.
Leheganv;	2·0	Kokarda;	3·0; Fri.	..	..	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); Maruti Fr., ct. Sud 15; 7tl; lib.
Badnera;	16·0	Hivara;	0·1; Sun.	Local;	..	w	Cs; tl.
Tukaithad;	4·0	Raytalai;	4·0; Sat	Tukaithad;	5·0	rv.	..
Pandurana;	33·0	Benoda;	1·0; Sat.	..	.	W.	tl.
Dhamanganv;	7·0	Devganv;	0·4; .	..	0·3	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Elichpur;	12·0	Gaulkheda;	1·0; Tue	..	..	..	..
Elichpur;	13·0	Vani;	2·0;	Shirajganv;	9·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Paratvada;	4·0	Paratvada;	4·0; Thu.	Achalpur;	3·0	W;w	..
Banosa;	8·0	Banosa;	8·0; Thu.	Arala;	2·0	W, w	2 Sl (pr, m); pvt; 3 tl.
Chamak Bk.;	2·0	Chamak Bk.;	2·0; Fri.	Achalpur;	5·4	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 2 tl; lib.
Dhanodi;	1·0	Dhanodi;	1·0; Fri.	..	2·6	W,rv	Sl (pr); Cs; tl
Amravati;	25·0	Chandur Bazar;	2·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar;	2·0	W;w	Sl (pr); Cs (gr).
Kokarda;	8·0	Local;	.. Tue.	..	..	rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (gr); 3 tl.
Pandurana;	30·0	Rajura;	4·0; Thu.	..	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Nāndagāṅv Peṭh—Amt.—नांदगांव पेठ.	N;	8·0	11·0;	6719;	1403;	2356	Local;	..
Nāndasāvangī—Amt.—नांदसावंगी	S;	19·0	2·2;	845;	197;	339	Dhanora Gurav;	2·0
Nāndeḍ Bk.—Dyr.—नांदेड बु. ..	E;	12·0	3·5;	1544;	326;	714	Local;	..
Nāndeḍ Kh.—Amt.—नांदेड खु. ..	W;	28·0	1·3;	357;	82;	220	Nanded Bk.;	2·0
Nāndrūn—Dyr.—नांद्रुन ..	W;	6·0	4·4;	852;	176;	443	Bhamod;	2·0
Nāndurā—Dyr.—नांदुरा ..	S;	5·0	1·9;	416;	97;	171	Mahuli;	..
Nāndūrā Bk.—Amt.—नांदूरा बु. ..	N;	7·0	3·3;	1462;	292;	620	Local;	..
Nāndurābād—Cdr.—नांदुराबाद	S;	13·0	1·5;	298;	69;	143	Sultanpur;	1·0
Nāndūrā Kh.—Amt.—नांदूरा खु.	N;	17·0	1·4;	195;	45;	92	Dhanora Phasi;	1·0
Nāndūrā Laṣkarpūr—Amt.—नांदूरा लष्करपूर.	W;	12·0	2·0;	484;	116;	258	Local;	..
Nāndūrā Piṅgaḷāī—Amt.—नांदूरा पिंगळाई.	N;	20·0	4·3;	405;	96;	207	Brahmanvada Govindpur;	1·0
Nāndurī—Mlg.—नांदुरी ..	SE;	15·0	2·6;	322;	61;	190	Harisal;	4·0
Nānorī—Acr.—नानोरी ..	E;	20·0	1·2;	695;	143;	297	Sonori;	2·0
Naradoḍā—Dyr.—नरदोडा ..	S;	6·0	3·2;	978;	196;	416	Kanholi;	0·1
Nāradū—Mlg.—नारदू ..	S;	17·0	3·9;	191;	35;	87	Sadrabadi;	6·0
Nāragāvaṇḍī—Cdr.—नारगावंडी ..	SE;	11·0	3·4;	503;	119;	250	Dhamangaon;	2·0
Narasāḷā—Acr.—नरसाळा ..	NW;	4·0	0·9;	54;	9;	5	Achalpur Camp;	1·0
Narasarī—Acr.—नरसरी ..	N;	5·0	0·7;	200;	47;	93	Gaurkheda;	0·4
Narasiṅgapūr—Acr.—नरसिंगपूर	S;	12·0	1·2;	133;	31;	75	Kolha;	1·0
Narasiṅgapūr—Amt.—नरसिंगपूर	N;	15·0	0·9;	398;	92;	208	Yawali;	0·2
Narasiṅgapūr—Dyr.—नरसिंगपूर	E;	7·0	0·9;	450;	90;	194	Nanded Bk.;	2·0
Nāravāṭī—Mlg.—नारवाटी ..	W;	3·0	1·2;	227;	44;	113	Kalamkhar;	1·0
Nārāyaṇpūr—Acr.—नारायणपूर ..	E;	2·0	0·5;	294;	46;	71	Paratvada;	2·0
Nārāyaṇpūr—Amt.—नारायणपूर	N;	16·0	2·2;	227;	48;	85	Rama;	..
Nārāyaṇapūr Bk.—Dyr.—नारायणपूर बु.	N;	14·0	0·8;	513;	115;	189	Kapus Talani;	0·4

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Amravati;	8·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W.	5 Sl (pr, 2 m, 2 h); 2 Cs; Ramnavmi Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 14; 12 tl; 2 m; 6 mq; dg; 2 dh; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib; 5 dp.
Badnera;	14·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Dhanora;	2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; mq; 2 dg; ch; dp.
Daryapur;	12·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Shinganapur;	2·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 5 tl; mq; dp.
Mana;	9·0	Selu;	2·0; Tue	..	7·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Banosa;	8·0	Banosa;	8·0; Thu.	Daryapur;	6·0	t.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Banosa;	5·0	Banosa;	5·0; Thu.	Stage;	0·5	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); tl; mq; dg.
Amravati	..	Local;	.. Fri.	..	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Datta Jayanti Fr. Mrg Sud. 15; 7 tl; dg; lib; dp.
Chandur;	13·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Shivani;	6·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; lib.
Badnera;	11·0	Dhanora Phasi;	1·0; Thu.	Loni;	4·0	W.	3 tl.
Amravati;	11·0	Nandganv Peth;	3·0; Fri.	..	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	21·0	Nerpingalai;	3·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Pingala Devi Fr. An. Sud. 1 to 9; 5 tl; m.
Tukaithad;	36·0	Harisal;	4·0; Wed.	Harisal;	5·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Amravati;	25·0	Chandur Bazar;	2·0; Sun.	Chandur Bazar;	2·0	W;w	Sl (pr); Datta Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl; m.
Lehcganv;	4·0	Banosa,	7·0; Thu.	Stage;	0·3	w;rv	Sl (pr); 3 Cs; 3 tl; dg.
Tukaithad;	6·0	Susarda;	2·0; Wed.	Modra;	4·0	rv	..
Dhamanganv;	2·0	Dhamanganv;	2·0; Sun.	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Elichpur;	2·0	Achalpur Camp;	1·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	Cch.
Elichpur;	3·4	Achalpur Camp;	2·4; Thu.	.	4·0	W.	2 tl; gym; lib.
Kushta Bk.;	7·0	Kolha;	1·0; Fri.	..	5·0	W;w.	tl; m.
Amravati,	15·0	Yawali;	0·2; Fri.	..	0·2	W.	tl.
Daryapur;	10·0	Banosa;	.. Thu.	.	0·8	W;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tukaithad;	15·0	Kalamkhar;	1·0; Sat.	Dharni;	3·0	W;rv.	tl
Paratvada;	1·0	Paratvada;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	18·0	Thuganv;	3·0; Fri.	..	2·0	W;	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dp.
Kapus Talani;	1·0	Kapus Talani;	0·1; Tue.	..	6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2 tl; mq, dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Nārāyaṇapūr Kh.—Dyr.—नारायणपूर खु.	N; 10·0	1·1; 3; 3; ..	.. ..
Nasirapūr—Msi.—नसिरपूर ..	S; 4·0	0·9; 288; 61; 145	Pardī; 1·0
Naṭāḷā—Msi.—नटाळा ..	NE; 9·0	1·0; 144; 31; 75	Loni; 4·0
Navasārī—Amt.—नवसारी ..	W; 3·0	3·6; 1097; 237; 438	Amravati; 3·0
Navathaḷ Bk.—Amt.—नवथळ बु.	NW; 14·0	0·9; 154; 26; 85	Dhamori: 1·0
Navathaḷ Kh.—Amt.—नवथळ खु.	W; 13·0	0·2; 59; 12; 30	Mhaispur; 3·0
Nāveḍ—Amt.—नावेड ..	W; 21·2	1·9; 512; 111; 239	Kholapur; 1·6
Nekanāmpūr—Cdr.—नेकनामपूर	E; 2·0	1·1; 73; 21; 40	Chandur; 2·0
Nerpiṅgaḷāī—Msi.—नेरपिंगळाई ..	S; 13·4	12·3; 7354; 1588; 2426	Local; ..
Nibhārṇī—Msi.—निभार्णी ..	S; 14·0	1·1; 193; 44; 111	Rajurvadi; 3·0
Nijāmapūr—Acr.—निजामपूर ..	S; 6·0	2·0; 389; 82; 142	Bopapur; 2·0
Nimbāpūr—Cdr.—निंबापूर ..	SW; 13·0	1·0; 50;	Taleganv; 4·0
Nimadarī—Acr.—निमदरी ..	NW; 9·0	0·9; 270; 47; 139	Dhamanganv; 2·0
Nimagavhāṇ—Amt.—निमगव्हाण	SW; 31·0	2·3; 12; 4; 8	Mangarul Chaval; 2·0
Nimagavhāṇ—Cdr.—निमगव्हाण	S; 9·0	4·2; 1023; 232; 539	Local; ..
Nimakheḍ—Amt.—निमखेड ..	N; 9·0	0·6; 86; 23; 39	.. ..
Nimakheḍā—Acr.—निमखेडा ..	NE; 26·0	1·1; 512; 94; 180	Surali; 2·0
Nimakheḍ Āḍe—Dyr.—निमखेड आडे.	NW; 23·0	1·0; 106; 25; 61	Karla; 1·0
Nimakheḍ Bāzār—Dyr.—निमखेड बाजार.	NW; 26·0	1·4; 1341; 295; 665	Local; ..
Nimakuṇḍ—Acr.—निमकुंड ..	N; 7·0	1·0; 211; 36; 122	Paratvada; 5·4
Nimalā—Cdr.—निमला ..	S, 6·0	0·8; 64; 16; 31	Amla; 0·2
Nimbasavāḍī—Amt.—निंबसवाडी	S; 19·0	1·3; 201; 43, 107	Vaduri; 2·0
Nimbhā—Amt.—निंभा ..	W; 8·0	2·8; 927; 168; 466	Alonaganv; 2·0
Nimbhā—Cdr.—निंभा ..	N; 10·0	2·6; 780; 176, 389	Javala; 2·0
Nimbhārī—Acr.—निंभारी ..	S; 18·2	1·6; 460; 85; 242	.. 0·2
Nimbhārī—Dyr.—निंभारी ..	NW; 9·0	2·7; 983; 232; 485	Local; ..
Nimbhorā Boḍakhā—Cdr.—निंभोरा बोडखा.	E; 18·0	1·5; 1345; 259; 612	Local; ..
Nimbhorā Delavāḍī—Cdr.—निंभोरा देलवाडी.	NE; 22·0	5·5; 1133; 270; 545	Varkhed; 2·0
Nimbhorārāj—Cdr.—निंभोराराज	E; 14·0	2·7; 413; 88; 244	Nimbhora Bodakha; ..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
.. ..	.. .. ..	Ramaganv; 2·0	W;w.	2 tl.
Amravati; 56·0	Morshi; 5·0; Tue.	Morshi; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl
Pandurana; 24·0	Hivarkheda; 4·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	W;w.	tl.
Amravati; 3·0	Amravati; 3·0; Wed; Sun.	Amravati; 3·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m), 2 tl; ch.
Amravati; 14·0	Dhamori; 1·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	w;t.	tl.
Amravati; 22·0	Bhatkuli; 3·0; Fri.	Mhaispur; 3·0	W.	tl.
Amravati; 22·0	Chendakapur; 0·4; Fri.	Kholapur; 1·2	rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Chandur; 1·0	Chandur; 2·0; Sun	.. 0·½	W.	tl.
Amravati, 25·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;w.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); 2 Cs; Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud. 13; 23 tl; 6 m; 2 mq; 5 dg; dh; ch; 2 dp.
Amravati; 33·0	Rajurvadi; 3·0; Sat.	Rajurvadi; 3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Chamak Bk.; 4·0	Borganv Peth; 1·0; Thu.	Menganathpur 3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl, mq.
Dhamanganv; 10·0	.. .. ..	Taleganv; 2·0	W.	..
Paratvada; 9·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Wed.	.. 9·0	w;rv.	Cs (gr); tl.
Badnera; 27·0	Mangarul Chaval; 2·0; Thu.	.. 4·0	W.	tl.
Dipori; 10·0	Ghuikhed; 3·0; Wed.	Shendurjana; 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl
Amravati; 8·0	Valganv; 2·0 Thu	Vayaganv; 1·0	W;n.	tl; mq.
Amravati; 31·0	Ghatladaki; 2·0; Sat.	.. 10·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Karla; 1·0; Tue.	. 1·0	W;w.	tl
Anjanganv; 6·0	Local; .. Sat.	. 2·0	W;w	Sl (pr), 2 Cs (2 c); Jayapuri Maharaj Fr. An. Sud. 10; 2 tl; m.
Achalpur; 6·4	Paratvada; 5·4; Thu	.. 0·3	W.	..
Chandur; 6·0	Amla; 0·2; Wed.	Amla; 0·3	W.	tl.
Badnera; 12·0	Dhanajpura; 4·0; Tue	.. 5·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl
Badnera; 8·0	Bhatkuli; 2·0 Fri.	.. 0·6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs. 2 tl.
Chandur; 9·0	Rajura; 2·0 ..	.. 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; 2 m
Kushta; 9·0	Yesurni; 0·2; Mon.	.. 0·2	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Kokarda; 2·0	Local; .. Sat.	Daryapur; 9·0	W,w.	Sl (m); Cs (c); 4 tl; ch; lib.
Talani; 0·½	Local;	.. 6·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 gym.
Arvi; 9·0	Shendurjana; 4·0; Tue.	Tivasa; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; m.
Talani; 1·0	Pulganv; 6·0; Mon.	Dhamanganv; 4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Nimbhī—Msi.—निंभी ..	W; 7·0	1·7; 1029; 250; 506	Local; ..
Nimbhorā—Acr.—निंभोरा ..	E; 15·0	1·0; 226; 44; 87	Pimpari (Thuganv); 0·4
Nimbhorā—Amt.—निंभोरा ..	SW; 7·0	1·9; 296; 68; 148	Uttamsara; 1·0
Nimbhorā—Amt.—निंभोरा ..	S; 9·0	2·2; 209; 47; 109	Badnera; 3·0
Nimbhorā Kh.—Amt.—निंभोरा खु.	S; 3·4	1·7; 101; 33; 44	Badnera; 3·0
Nimbolī—Cdr.—निंबोली ..	E; 18·0	4·8; 1610; 379; 817	Local; ..
Nindhoṇḍī—Amt.—निंधोंडी ..	NW; 15·0	0·8; 104; 26; 38	Dhamori; 0·4
Niraguḍī—Mlg.—निरगुडी ..	.. 6·0	1·4; 155; 29; 83	Dharni; 8·0
Nirasānā—Amt.—निरसाना ..	SE; 13·0	1·5; 384; 83; 167	Menjari Mhasala; 3·0
Niruḷ—Amt.—निरुळ ..	SE; 16·0	2·3; 1168; 269; 503	Local; ..
Ojharakheḍā—Amt.—ओझरखेडा	NW; 6·0	1·8; 234; 54; 128	Valganv; 2·0
Oṅkārakheḍā—Amt.—ओंकारखेडा	.. ..	1·7; 213; 49; 63	.. 1·0
Pācoḍ—Amt.—पाचोड ..	SE; 27·0	0·9; 107; 24; 57	.. 1·0
Pāḍidam—Mlg.—पाडिदम ..	N; 19·0	0·8; 108; 16; 65	Dharni; 18·0
Pahūr—Amt.—पहूर ..	S; 22·0	2·3; 385; 86; 1[illegible]8	Phubaganv; 3·0
Pāḷā—Acr.—पाळा ..	NE; 14·0	2·4; 123; 25; 57	Sirasganv Kasaba; 3·0
Pāḷā—Amt.—पाळा ..	S; 8·0	1·4; 391; 78; 192	Dabha; 1·4
Pāḷā—Msi.—पाळा ..	N; 4·0	7·6; 952; 234; 575	Local; ..
Paḷasakheḍ—Cdr.—पळसखेड ..	S; 6·0	7·2; 2239; 519; 961	Local; ..
Paḷasakheḍā—Dyr.—पळसखेडा ..	N; 26·4	1·5; 2; 1; 2	Nimkhed Bazar; 4·0
Palāsakuṇḍī—Mlg.—पलासकुंडी ..	S; 30·0	.. 55; 10; 28	Dharni; 26·0
Paḷasamaṇḍaḷ—Amt.—पळसमंडळ ..	S; 21·0	2·3; 1056; 249; 523	Local; ..
Paḷasavāḍā—Msi.—पळसवाडा ..	E; 22·0	1·3; 445; 95; 196	Loni; 2·0
Paḷasonā—Msi.—पळसोना ..	NE; 15·0	2·2; 161; 33; 92	Jamganv; 3·0

Railway Station; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Amravati;	27·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (m); Cs (c); Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud. 12; 3 tl; 2 m; ch; lib.
Achalpur;	18·0	Pimpari (Thuganv);	0·4; Thu.	..	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Badnera;	4·0	Badnera;	4·0; Mon; Fri.	Badnera;	4·0	W.	tl.
Badnera;	3·0	Badnera;	3·0; Mon.	Badnera;	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	3·0	Badnera;	3·0; Mon; Fri.	Amravati;	2·4	W.	tl.
Talani;	3·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	..	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; m; gym; lib; dp.
..	..	Dhamori;	0·2; Sun.	..	1·0	W.	tl.
Tukaithad;	23·0	Dharni;	8·0; Fri.	..	6·0	W.	..
Timtala;	24·0	Anjanganv;	4·0 ..	Januna;	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Amravati;	18·0	Local;	.. ..	Thuganv;	6·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; Gangamai Fr. Ps. Sud. [illegible]; 6 tl, lib.
Amravati;	6·0	Valganv;	2·0; Thu.	..	2·0	w;rv.	tl.
Timtala;	7·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	1·0; Sat.	..	..	W.	..
Badnera;	22·0	Mangarul Chaval;	1·0; Thu.	Shivani;	2·0	W	..
Tukaithad;	38·0	Bairagad;	2·0; Mon.	Dharni;	21·0	n.	..
Badnera,	8·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	2·0; Sat.	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	2·0	W;rv	Sl (pr); tl.
Achalpur;	16·0	Khomai;	0·4; Tue.	.	2·0	rv.	tl.
Badnera;	2·0	Badnera,	2·0; Mon.	..	2·0	w	Sl (pr); tl; ch.
Amravati,	37·0	Morshi;	3·0; Tue.	Morshi;	4·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Devi Fr. An Sud. 1 to 9; 3 tl; m; mq, ch.
Chandur;	6·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Chandur;	6·0	W.	Sl (m), Cs (c); 4 tl; mq; gym; ch; dp.
Anjanganv;	8·0	Nimkhed Bazar;	1·0; Sat.	..	2·0	W.	tl.
Dhulghat;	1·0	Raytalai;	12·0; Sat.	..	..	n.	..
Badnera;	18·0	Local;	.. Sun	..	4·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl; gym; 3 lib; 3 dp.
Pandurana;	36·0	Loni;	2·0; Wed.	Benoda;	6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Pandurana;	30·0	Benoda;	2·0; Sat	..	1·0	w;t.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Palaśyā—Mlg.—पलश्या	..	..	2·0;	154;	26;	93	..	..
Pālavāḍī—Cdr.—पालवाडी	N;	18·0	1·4;	448;	105;	226	Kavadgavhan;	1·0
Pānakhālyā—Mlg.—पानखाल्या	SW;	6·0	2·4;	229;	43;	158	Kalamkhar;	2·0
Pāñcaḍoṅgarī—Mlg.—पांचडोंगरी	..	..	2·2;	262;	43;	153	Katkumbha;	2·0
Pāṇḍharaghāṭī—Msi.—पांढरघाटी	N;	10·0	1·1;	140;	34;	85	Jamganv;	3·0
Pāṇḍharī—Acr.—पांढरी	NE;	14·0	1·8;	289;	52;	162	Paratvada;	6·0
Pāṇḍharī—Acr.—पांढरी	N;	8·0	0·7;	138;	27;	57	Sirasganv;	1·4
Pāṇḍharī—Msi.—पांढरी	..	..	3·8;	20;	7;	12	Pusala;	3·0
Pānorā—Dyr.—पानोरा	NE;	5·0	3·3;	731;	154;	387	Takali;	2·0
Pāpaḷ—Amt.—पापळ	S;	24·3	6·1;	1516;	330;	794	Local;	..
Paralām—Amt.—परलाम	SW;	8·0	2·0;	570;	127;	322	Uttamsara;	1·0
Parasāpūr—Acr.—परसापूर	N;	10·0	1·6;	1158;	310;	616	Local;	..
Parasoḍā—Acr.—परसोडा	NE;	24·0	1·1;	65,	17;	28	Chandur Bazar;	14·0
Parasoḍā—Acr.—परसोडा	E;	20·0	2·1;	385;	69;	148	Kharala;	1·0
Parasoḍī—Cdr.—परसोडी	E;	11·0	1·4;	309;	72;	134	Dhamanganv;	2·0
Parasoḍā—Amt.—परसोडा	E;	8·0	2·3;	499;	104;	246	Tapovan;	4·0
Paratavāḍā—Acr.—परतवाडा	N;	2·0	Included in Urban Area I.					
Pārḍī—Amt.—पार्डी	SE;	15·0	2·8;	1347;	304;	630	Local;	..
Pāraḍī—Dyr.—पारडी	NW;	12·0	0·8;	175;	38;	81	Umri;	2·0
Pārḍī—Msi.—पार्डी	SE;	5·2	1·4;	1188;	286;	489	Local;	.
Pārḍī—Msi.—पार्डी	N;	23·0	3·5;	9;	7;	7	..	..
Parvatapūr—Amt.—पर्वतपूर	N;	12·0	0·9;	394;	92;	194	..	0·1
Pātharapūr—Mlg.—पाथरपूर	NE;	9·0	3·4;	90;	15;	42	Sadrabadi;	4·0
Pāṭīyā—Mlg.—पाटीया	E;	15·0	2·6;	437;	73;	232	Dharni;	10·0
Pavanī—Msi.—पवनी	E;	28·0	4·0;	1276;	259;	600	Rajura Bazar;	3·0
Pātharagāṅv—Cdr.—पाथरगांव	N;	7·0	2·9;	199;	40;	111	Chandur;	7·0
Pātharvirā—Dyr.—पाथरविरा	W;	7·0	1·2;	159;	32;	83	Bhamod;	1·0
Pathroṭ—Acr.—पथ्रोट	W;	12·0	6·9;	6571;	1424;	2902	Local;	..
Pātūr—Msi.—पातूर	SW;	18·0	0·8;	208;	49;	104	Adganv;	1·2
Peḍhī—Amt.—पेढी	SW;	16·0	0·8;	213;	40;	81	Dadhi;	0·4

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
Chandur;	18·0	Shendurjana Bk.;	6·0; Tue.	..	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Tukaithad;	14·0	Kalamkhar;	2·0; Sat.	Dhulghat;	1·0	w;n.	tl.
Elichpur;	51·0	Katkumbha;	2·0; Thu.	..	..	..	..
Pandurana;	36·0	Benoda;	3·0; Sat.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Achalpur;	7·0	Paratvada;	6·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Achalpur;	15·0	Sirasganv;	1·4; Sat.	..	6·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Pandurana;	11·0	Pusala;	3·0 ..	Pusala;	..	W.	tl.
Dhujavada;	2·0	Banosa;	6·0; Thu.	..	0·6	w;rv	Sl (pr), Cs; 4 tl.
Badnera;	18·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	..	w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h), Cs; 2tl; m; mq; dg; dp.
Takali;	3·0	Ganori;	3·0; Tue.	Badnera;	5·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Pathrot;	4·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Amorajibua Fr. An. Sud 8; 4 tl; mq.
Achalpur;	28·0	Chandur Bazar;	14·0; Sun.	..	10·0	W;w.	tl.
Amravati;	20·0	Chandur Bazar;	1·6; Sun.	..	1·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); Durgadevi Fr. An. Vad. 8; 2 tl.
Dhamanganv;	2·0	Dattapur;	2·0; Sun.	.	1·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	8·0	Amravati;	8·0; Wed; Sun.	Amravati;	8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	.	..
Malkhed;	2·0	Pardi;	.. Sun.	Badnera;	6·0	W;	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kokarda;	5·0	Umri Mamda-bad;	2·0; Sat.	Yewda;	6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); tl
Amravati;	37·0	Morshi;	3·0; Tue.	Morshi;	4·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 2 tl; 2 m, mq; dp.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	..
Amravati;	20·0	..	2·0; Sat.	.	6·0	w.	2 tl.
Tukaithad;	15·0	Dedtalai;	7·0; Sun	Dedtalai	7·0	w;n.	..
Tukaithad;	29·0	Dharni;	14·0; Fri.	Durna;	7·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Katol;	20·0	Rajura;	3·0; Thu.	Rajura;	4·0	W;w	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; gym; dp.
Chandur;	7·0	Amla;	2·0; Wed.	Amla;	2·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Banosa;	10·0	Bhamod;	1·0; Fri.	..	7·0	w;rv.	tl.
..	3·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	1·0	W.	8 Sl (4 pr, 2 m, 2 h), 2 Cs; Jaisingi Maharaj Fr. Ct. 15; 5 tl; 2 m; 4 mq; 2 dg; 2 dh; ch; 2 lib; dp.
Amravati;	18·0	Adganv;	1·2; Thu.	..	4·0	w;rv	Sl (pr); tl.
Kurum;	1·0	Dadhi;	0·4; Fri.	Bopi;	5·0	W;rv.	tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Peṭh Itabārapūr—Dyr.—पेठ इतबारपूर.	N; 0·4	2·9; 232; 47; 133	Daryapur; 0·4
Peṭh Itabārapūr—Dyr.—पेठ इतबारपूर.	.. ..	Included in Urban Area II	
Peṭh Māṅgaruḷī—Msi.—पेठ मांगरूळी.	SE; 22·0	1·7; 1113; 234; 497	Local; ..
Peṭh Raghunāthapūr—Cdr.—पेठ रघुनाथपूर.	E; 18·0	1·0; 117; 30; 70	Mund Nilkantha Sakharam; ..
Phājalapūr—Acr.—फाजलपूर	E; 8·0	1·9; 249; 57; 107	Talegaonv; ..
Phājalapūr—Dyr.—फाजलपूर	S; 9·0	0·6; 237; 58; 113	Kokarda; 0·1
Phattepūr—Amt.—फत्तेपूर	NW; 21·0	0·7; 18; 3; 3	..; 3·0
Phattepūr—Cdr.—फत्तेपूर	N; 31·0	1·3; 226; 56; 143	Javara; 1·0
Phattepūr—Cdr.—फत्तेपूर	N; 28·0	2·5; 246; 56; 106	Shivanganv; 0·2
Phattepūr—Dyr.—फत्तेपूर	N; 24·0	0·8; 274; 60; 138	Dahiganv; ..
Phattepūr—Msi.—फत्तेपूर	E; 25·0	1·6; 233; 50; 108	Rajura Bazar; 2·0
Phaijalapūr—Amt.—फैजलपूर	N; 14·0	0·9; 61; 11; 14	Devara; 2·0
Phubagāṅv—Amt.—फुबगांव	SE; 28·0	4·5; 1579; 370; 732	Local; ..
Phūl Āmalā—Amt.—फूल आमला	SW; 25·0	3·2; 947; 217; 457	Local; ..
Phūpagāṅv—Acr.—फुपगांव	SE; 10·0	1·2; 523; 111; 249	Kural; 2·0
Pimpaḷāgaḍ—Msi.—पिंपळागड	SW; 38·0	1·3; 163; 38; 91	Langa; 4·0
Pimpaḷagāṅv Baināī—Amt.—पिंपळगांव बेनाई.	S; 20·0	1·8; 635; 145; 308	Dhanora Gurav; 4·0
Pimpaḷagāṅv Nipāṇī—Amt.—पिंपळगांव निपाणी.	S; 26·0	2·0; 1274; 300; 671	Local; ..
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Acr.—पिंपळखुटा	NW; 8·0	0·9; 175; 28; 92	Dhamanganv; 2·0
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Acr.—पिंपळखुटा	E; 14·0	1·2; 322; 73; 177	Kural; 1·4
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Amt.—पिंपळखुटा	E; 12·0	3·3; 1025; 250; 534	Mardi; 2·0
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Cdr.—पिंपळखुटा	NE; 19·0	4·5; 1121; 246; 603	Local; ..
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Dyr.—पिंपळखुटा	W; 6·0	1·0; 283; 61; 136	Sasan Ramapur; 2·0
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Msi.—पिंपळखुटा	E; 17·0	1·6; 321; 65; 127	Jarud; 2·0
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Msi.—पिंपळखुटा	S; 6·0	2·5; 362; 90; 164	Nimbhi; 2·0
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Msi.—पिंपळखुटा	S; 5·0	4·0; 1786; 419; 870	Local; ..
Pimpaḷakhuṭā—Msi.—पिंपळखुटा	.. ..	1·1; 16; 10; 11	..; ..
Pimpaḷasenḍā—Msi.—पिंपळसेंडा	W; 24·0	2·4; 20; 5; 11	Shendurjana; 1·0
Pimpaḷavihir—Amt.—पिंपळविहिर	E; 15·0	3·9; 524; 119; 264	Shivanganv; 2·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Banosa; 1·0	Banosa; 1·4; Thu.	.. 1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Pandurana; 29·0	Rajura; 3·0; Thu.	Jarud; 4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dp.
Talani; 6·0	Mund Nilkantha Sakharam; .. Wed.	Dhamanganv; 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Achalpur; 8·0	Taleganv; .. Fri.	.. 0·2	w;rv.	tl.
Kokarda; 2·0	Kokarda; 0·1; Fri.	.. ..	w;rv.	tl.
.. 15·0	.. 7·0; ..	.. 3·0	w.	tl.
Chandur; 25·0	Tivasa;	.. ..	W.	Cs; tl.
Amravati; 18·0	Shivanganv; 0·2; Wed.	.. 4·0	rv.	tl.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Anjanganv; 5·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	W;w.	tl.
Katol; 24·0	Rajura Bazar; 2·0; Thu.	.. 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 14·0	Devara; 0·2; Mon	Yavali; 2·0	W;rv.	tl.
Badnera; 22·0	Local; .. Wed.	Bembala; 2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; mq; dp.
Kurum; 1·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 10·0	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; lib; dp.
Achalpur; 14·0	Tulajapur Gadhi; 2·0; Tue.	.. 1·0	w;rv	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Pandurana; 10·0	Pusala; 7·0; Tue.	Stage; 1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr), tl.
Badnera; 11·0	Local; .. Sun	Dhanora Gurav; 2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr)
Badnera; 22·0	Local; .. Fri	.. 9·0	w	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Paratvada; 9·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0, Wed.	Paratvada; 8·0	W.	Cs.
Achalpur; 14·0	Chandur Bazar, 4·0; Sun	.. 1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr), 2 tl.
Amravati; 10·0	Local; .. Wed.	Pohara; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); pvt, Cs; 3 tl; m; ch.
Dhamanganv; 8.0	Anjansingi; 2·0; Sun	Anjansingi 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 3 tl.
Banosa; 6·0	Yewda; 3·0; Wed.	.. 1·4	W;w; t.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Pandurana; 25·0	Jarud; 2·0; Sun	Jarud; 2·0	w	Sl (pr); tl
Amravati 29.0	Morshi; 6·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl;
Amravati; 32.0	Local, .. Sun	Talani; 3·0	W;pl	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 5 tl; m; mq; 3 dg; lib; 4 dp.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	..
Multai; 23·0	Shedurjana; 1·0; Fri.	Tivasa; ..	W;w.	tl.
Amravati; 15·0	Local; .. Sun.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl, dg.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Pimpalod—Dyr.—पिंपळोद ..	W; 10·0	6·3; 2386; 522; 1149	Local; ..
Pimprī—Amt.—पिंप्री ..	N; 8·0	0·9; 87; 15; 29	Takali; 1·0
Pimprī—Amt.—पिंप्री ..	S; 6·0	1·4; 544; 123; 256	Badnera; 2·0
Pimprī—Msi.—पिंप्री ..	E; 11·0	2·7; 200; 50; 141	Ambada; 4·0
Pimprī Gāvaṇḍā—Amt.—पिंप्री गावंडा.	S; 24·0	2·0; 367; 103; 200	Papal; 2·0
Pimprī Nipāṇī—Amt.—पिंप्री निपाणी.	.. 26·0	2·6; 671; 147; 336	Local; ..
Pimprī Pocyā—Amt.—पिंप्री पोच्या	.. ..	1·7; 93; 23; 51	Papal; 2·0
Pimprī Taḷegāṅv—Acr.—पिंप्री तळेगांव.	E; 8·0	1·1; 160; 38; 76	Taleganv; 0·4
Pimprī Thūgāṅv—Acr.—पिंप्री थूगांव.	NE; 14·0	1·8; 720; 161; 331	Local; ..
Pipaḷagavhāṇ—Dyr.—पिंपळगव्हाण	N; 10·0	1·5; 395; 96; 210	Songanv; 2·0
Poharā—Amt.—पोहरा ..	E; 10·4	1·5; 330; 69; 155	Thuganv; 1·0
Poharā—Amt.—पोहरा ..	SE; 18·3	1·9; 733; 164; 337	Chandur; 10·0
Poharā—Mlg.—पोहरा ..	E; 5·0	2·0; 251; 46; 134	Bodfarm; 3·0
Pohī—Acr.—पोही ..	SW; 8·0	1·6; 280; 61; 142	Bhilona; 1·0
Pohī—Dyr.—पोही ..	N; 14·0	1·6; 415; 91; 186	Takarkheda More; 2·0
Poragavhāṇ—Msi.—पोरगव्हाण ..	W; 10 0	1·3; 1155; 260; 482	Local; ..
Poragavhāṇ—Msi.—पोरगव्हाण ..	N; 44·0	4·0; 461; 91; 261	Khairganv; 1·0
Poṭilāvā—Mlg.—पोटिलावा ..	E; 15·0	1·7; 183; 33; 102	Harisal; 4·0
Pralhādapūr—Acr.—प्रल्हादपूर ..	E; 18·0	0·5; 16; 6; 1	Chandur Bazar; 0·2
Pralhādapūr—Dyr.—प्रल्हादपूर ..	NE; 14·0	0·3; 159; 39; 61	Khallar; 0·4
Pusadā—Amt.—पुसदा ..	N; 14·5	9·8; 2507; 577; 1205	Local; ..
Pusalā—Msi.—पुसला ..	SE; 11·0	2·2; 34; 8; 21	Vathoda; 1·0
Pusalā—Msi.—पुसला ..	NE; 29·0	5·5; 5549; 1185; 2299	Local; ..
Pusalī—Msi.—पुसली ..	SE; 28 0	3·1; 201; 51; 114	Satanur; 0·4
Pūsanare—Amt.—पूसनरे ..	.. 23·0	1·1; 210; 43; 106	Pimpri Nipani; 2·0
Rebāṅg—Mlg.—रबांग ..	S; 12·0	2·0; 253; 42; 114	Dharni; 12·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Banosa;	10·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Yewda;	5·0	W;w.	Sl (m); 2 Cs (gr); Parshuram Fr. Mrg. Sud. 15; 5 tl; mq; dh; lib; 3 dp.
Amravati;	12·0	Takali;	1·0; Tue.	..	4·0	W.	tl.
Badnera;	2·0	Badnera;	2·0; Mon.	Badnera;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	43·0	Ambada;	3·0; Fri.	Morshi;	11·0	W;w.	..
Badnera;	30·0	Papal;	2·0; ..	Papal;	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	17·0	Dhanora Phasi;	5·0; Thu.	..	6·2	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	18·0	Vadhona Ramnath;	3·0; Mon.	..	..	W.	..
Achalpur;	10·0	Taleganv;	0·4; Fri.	Stage;	0·1	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Achalpur;	12·0	Local;	.. Thu.	Kural;	3·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Kapus Talani;	3·0	Kokarda;	2·0; Fri.	..	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Amravati;	18·0	Thuganv;	1·0; Fri	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; 2 dg; ch.
Amravati;	10·0	Amravati;	10·0; Sun.	Local;	0·3	w;rv	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl; mq; dg; dp.
Tukaithad;	20·0	Dharni;	5·0; Fri.	Bodfarm;	0·1½	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kushta Patali;	3·0	Vadganv;	3·0; Sun.	Pathrot;	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kapus Talani;	1·0	Kapus Talani;	1·0; Tue.	..	5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Amravati;	40·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	1 0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 4tl; mq.
Narkhed;	6·0	Mohad;	2·0; Wed.	Amaner;	6·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr,m); tl.
Tukaithad;	30·0	Harisal;	4·0; Wed.	Durna;	7·0	w.	tl.
Amravati;	23·0	Chandur Bazar;	0·2; Sun.	..	0·2	W;w.	tl.
Kokarda;	6·0	Khallar;	0·4; Wed.	Stage;	0·6	w;rv.	..
Amravati;	15·0	Local;	.. Sat.	..	2·5	w	2 Sl (pr, m); Ramnavmi Ct. Vad. 9; 5 tl; m; mq; lib; 2 dp.
Amravati;	31·0	Nerpingalai;	4·0; Thu.	..	4·0	W;rv.	2 tl.
Pandurana;	14·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Local;	..	W;w.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 7 Cs; 16 tl; 2 m; 2 mq; 2 dg; 3 gym; 3 dp.
Mulatai;	21·0	Shendurjana;	3·0; Fri.	Shendurjana;	3 0	W.	Sl (pr); tl
Badnera;	14·0	Mahuli Chor;	7·0; Tue.	Dhanora Gurav;	3·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Tukaithad;	22·0	Dharni;	12·0; Fri.	Dharni;	12·0	w;rv.	tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Rahāṭagāṅv—Amt.—रहाटगांव ..	N;	4·0	5·7;	2209;	447;	997	Local;	..
Rahimāpūr—Amt.—रहिमापूर ..	SE;	16·0	0·8;	185;	49;	102	Manjari;	..
Rahimāpūr—Dyr.—रहिमापूर ..	NE;	14·0	0·3;	208;	49;	75	Chincholi Bk;	0·4
Rāiapūr—Acr.—रायपूर ..	W;	16·0	2·1;	13;	2;	4	Anjanganv;	5·0
Rāiapūr J.—Acr.—रायपूर ज ..	S;	14·0	1·9;	95;	20;	31	Asatpur;	0·1
Rāiapūr—Amt.—रायपूर ..	..	14·0	0·8;	452;	90;	149	Local;	..
Rāiapūr—Amt.—रायपूर ..	W;	5·0	1·4;	74;	14;	36	Kavatha;	1·4
Rāiapūr—Cdr.—रायपूर ..	E;	12·0	0·9;	488;	119;	267	Pulganv;	6·0
Rāiapūr—Msi.—रायपूर ..	W;	14·0	1·2;	95;	20;	33	Ashtoli;	2·0
Rāiapūrā—Acr.—रायपूरा ..	SW;	1·4	1·9;	15;	7;	7	..	..
Rājakheḍ—Dyr.—राजखेड ..	W;	12·0	0·8;	357;	87;	182	Varud Bk;	1·0
Rājanā—Acr.—राजना ..	E;	12·0	4·2;	1321;	271;	555	Local;	..
Rājanā—Amt.—राजना ..	S;	20·0	1·4;	186;	38;	103	Papal;	2·0
Rājanā—Cdr.—राजना ..	E;	2·0	2·3;	634;	140;	305	Chandur;	2·0
Rājāpeṭh—Amt.—राजापेठ ..	..	..	Included in Urban Area I					
Rājapūr—Mlg.—राजपूर ..	SW;	14·0	3·6;	280;	54;	188	Sadrabadi;	4·0
Rājūrā—Amt.—राजूरा ..	E;	5·0	1·9;	237;	52;	96	Tapovan;	0·4
Rājūrā—Cdr.—राजूरा ..	NW;	10·0	7·2;	1917;	426;	977	Local;	..
Rājūrā—Msi.—राजूरा .	SE;	26·0	2·7;	2601;	565;	1115	Local;	..
Rājūrā (small) —Msi.—राजूरा (लहान) ..	..	..	2·8;	295;	73;	140	Adganv;	3·0
Rājūravāḍī—Msi.—राजूरवाडी ..	S;	12·0	3·2;	1703;	366;	789	Local;	..
Rāmā—Amt.—रामा ..	N;	16·0	1·5;	576;	125;	271	Local;	..
Rāmāgaḍ—Dyr.—रामागड ..	SE;	8·0	1·2;	297;	67;	141	Ramtirth;	2·0
Rāmagāṅv—Acr.—रामगांव ..	SE;	3·0	0·3; Included in Urban Area II					
Rāmagāṅv—Amt.—रामगांव ..	N;	7·0	1·6;	165;	39;	98	Rahatganv;	1·0
Rāmagāṅv—Cdr.—रामगांव .	E;	11·0	1·6;	268;	58;	155	Dhamanganv;	2·0
Rāmagāṅv—Dyr.—रामगांव ..	N;	24·0	0·7;	150;	36;	89	Dahiganv;	..
Rāmagāṅv—Dyr.—रामगांव ..	SW;	10·4	1·7;	615;	150;	335	Kanholi;	3·0
Rāmāpūr N. Belaj—Acr.—रामापूर न. बेलज ..	E;	8·0	1·2;	410;	41;	181	Tuljapur Gadhi;	3·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information (9)
Amravati; 3·4	Local; .. Wed; Sat.	Local; 0·7	w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; 2m; mq; 2dh; lib.
Timtala; 4·0	Mhasla; 0·1; Wed.	.. 7·0	W.	tl.
Kapus Talani; 4·4	Chincholi Bk; 0·4; Wed.	Anjanganv; 8·0	W;w.	2 tl.
Shindi; 5·0	Pathrot; 4·0; Fri.	Pathrot; 4·0	W.	..
Kapus Talni; 12·0	Asatpur; 0·4; Thu.	Nimbhari; 1·0	w;rv.	.
Amravati; 20·0	Local; .. Sat.	Dhamori; 6·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera; 5·0	Amravati; 5·0; Sun.	Local; ..	W.	2 tl.
Pulganv; 6·0	Pulganv; 6·0; Mon.	.. 8·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.
Amravati; 34·0	Taroda; 2·0; Wed.	.. 3·0	w.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. .	.. 1·0	W;w.	..
Daryapur; 12·0	Varud Bk; 1·0; Tue.	Vadner Gangai; 2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; m.
Achalpur; 11·0	Local; .. Fri.	Menganathpur; ..	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; 3 tl; mq; ch; lib; dp.
Badnera; 16·0	.. 2·0; Tue.	.. 1·0	w.	tl.
Chandur; 1·0	Chandur; 2·0; Sun.	.. 0·1½	W.	Sl (pr); Sant Mungsaji Maharaj Fr.Phg. Sud. 6, 2 tl.
.. ..	. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Tukaithad; 4·0	Dedtalai; 6·0; Sun.	Dhavti; 3·0	W	..
Amravati; 3·0	Amravati, 3·0; Sun; Wed.	Amravati; 5·0	w.	tl.
Chandur; 9·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 5·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 6 tl; mq; ch; 2 dp.
Narkhed; 24·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	W;rv.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); Cs; 5 tl; mq; gym; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Amravati; 21·0	Adganv; 3·0; Thu.	.. ..	W;w	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 30·0	Local; .. Sat.	Local; ..	w;n.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 4 tl; mq, lib; dp.
Amravati; 16·0	Thuganv; 3·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dp.
Banosa; 10·0	Karatkheda; 3·0; Tue.	Daryapur; 8·0	t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Amravati; 6·0	Amravati; 6·0; Sun.	.. ..	W.	..
Dhamanganv; 2·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Sun.	Dhamanganv; 2·0	W;w.	tl.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Anjanganv; 5·0; Mon.	.. 4·0	W;w.	tl.
Kokarda, 7·0	Local;	.. 4·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; dp.
Achalpur; 8·0	Tuljapur Gadhi; 3·0; Tue.	Bhuganv; 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Rāmāpūr Bk.—Acr.—रामापूर बु.	W;	12·0	0·4;	468;	101;	237	Pathrot;	0·4
Rāmāpur Kh.—Acr.—रामापूर खु.	W;	12·0	0·3;	340;	70;	144	Pahtrot;	0·4
Rāmaṭek—Mlg.—रामटेक ..	..	..	0·7;	59;	12;	31	Gaulkheda;	1·0
Rāmatīrth—Dyr.—रामतीर्थ ..	W;	10·0	4·7;	1440;	326;	657	Local;	..
Rānapisā—Mlg.—रानपिसा ..	SW;	14·0	3·5;	453;	80;	271	Sadrabadi;	3·0
Raṅgāravāsanī—Acr.—रंगार-वासनी	S;	14·0	0·3;	201;	51;	76	Asatpur;	..
Rānigāṅv—Mlg.—रानिगांव ..	S;	28·0	3·4;	338;	59;	193	Dharni;	30·0
Rānī Tambolī—Mlg.—रानी तंबोली ..	S;	3·0	2·1;	561;	105;	322	Kalamkhar;	5·0
Rāsegāṅv—Acr.—रासेगांव ..	SW;	10·0	0·6;	2041;	434;	872	Local;	..
Raśīdapūr—Dyr.—रशिदपूर ..	N;	24·0	1·0;	361;	74;	190	Dahiganv Kh;	..
Rasulāpūr—Acr.—रसुलापूर ..	..	16·0	0·5;	500;	88;	227	Saur;	2·0
Rasulapūr—Amt.—रसुलपूर ..	N;	18·0	2·1;	414;	89;	169	Saur;	..
Rasulapūr—Amt.—रसुलपूर ..	SE;	26·0	1·5;	905;	189;	439	Local;	..
Rasulapūr—Amt.—रसुलपूर ..	NW;	2·0	1·0;	135;	29;	68	Amravati;	2·0
Rasulapūr—Amt.—रसुलपूर ..	N,	19·0	1·2;	87;	15;	54	Mangrul;	1·0
Ratanapūr—Acr.—रतनपूर ..	NE;	12·0	0·8;	151;	33;	71	Karanja Baheram;	1·0
Ratnāpūr—Dyr.—रत्नापूर ..	N;	14·0	1·2;	69;	16;	33	Kapus Talani;	0·4
Ratnāpūr—Dyr.—रत्नापूर ..	N;	16·0	1·5;	355;	76;	153	Vihiganv;	2·0
Ratnāpūr—Mlg.—रत्नापूर ..	W;	7·0	3·6;	547;	100;	337	Dharni;	8·0
Ratanapūr Jogarḍā—Dyr.—रतनपूर जोगर्डा ..	N;	10·0	0·6;	155;	37;	68	Songanv;	2·0
Ravāḷā—Mst.—रवाळा ..	N;	28·0	6·9;	275;	63;	149	Satanur;	2·0
Ravalagāṅv—Acr.—रावलगांव ..	..	13·0	1·2;	322;	66;	147	Donoda;	1·0
Reḍavā—Acr.—रेडवा ..	NE;	28·0	0·9;	159;	38;	89	Chandur Bazar;	14·0
Revasā—Amt.—रेवसा ..	N;	6·0	3·8;	1279;	280;	584	Valganv;	1·0
Riṇamocan—Amt.—रिणमोचन ..	W;	28·0	0·5;	203;	35;	76	Asara;	3·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Pathrot N. Shindhi;	..	Pathrot;	0·4; Fri.	..		W;w.	SI (pr); tl.
Pathrot N. Shindhi;	2·0	Pathrot;	0·4; Fri.	..	..	W;w.	2 tl.
Achalpur;	14·0	Gaulkheda;	1·0; Tue.	..	..	..	..
Banusa;	10·0	Karatkheda;	1·0; Tue.	Daryapur;	10·0	W;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs; Somawati Fr. Ct. Sud. 6; 2 tl.
Tukaithad;	10·0	Susarda;	2·0; Wed.	Dedtalai;	6·0	W.	SI (pr).
Pathrot;	10·0	Asatpur;	.. Thu.	..	..	W;rv.	2 SI (pr; m); Cs.
Dhulghat;	3·6	Raytalai;	12·0; Sat.	Tukaithad;	..	W.	SI (pr).
Tukaithad;	23·0	Dharni;	4·0; Fri.	Dharni;	3·0	w;rv.	SI (pr); tl.
Kushta Bk.;	4·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Talani;	5·0	w;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs (c); 11 tl; m; mq; ch; 2 dp; Cch.
Anjanganv;	5·0	Anjanganv;	5·0; Mon.	..	4·0	w;w.	tl.
Amravati;	19·0	Saur;	2·0; Sat.	Aseganv;	7·0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs (c); tl; gym.
Amravati;	20·0	Saur;	.. Sat.	..	2·0	W.	2 tl.
Badnera;	20·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Local;	..	W;w; rv.	2 tl; m.
Amravati;	2·0	Amravati;	2·0; Wed; Sun.	Amravati;	2·0	W.	tl.
Amravati;	21·0	Sirajganv;	2·0; Sat.	..	1·0	W.	tl.
Achalpur;	9·0	Shirajganv Kasaba;	3·0; Sat.	.	2·0	W;w.	SI (pr); 2 tl.
Kapus Talani;	1·0	Kapus Talani;	0·4; Tue.	..	6·0	W;w.	SI (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kapus Talani;	2·0	Kapus Talani;	2·0; Tue.	..	3·0	W;w.	Cs; tl.
Tukaithad;	20·0	Dharni;	8·0; Fri.	Melghat;	7·0	W.	SI (pr); Cs; tl.
Kapus Talani;	3·0	Kokarda;	2·0; Fri.	..	..	w;rv.	Cs (c); 2 tl.
Mulatai;	18·0	Shendurjana;	3·0; Fri.	..	2·0	W;w.	SI (pr); tl.
Kushta Bk;	9·0	Raseganv;	4·0; Tue.	..	3·0	w;rv.	SI (pr); 3 tl.
Achalpur;	28·0	Chandur Bazar;	14·0; Sun.	..	14·0	W;w.	tl.
Amravati;	6·0	Valganv;	1·0; Thu.	..	1·5	W;rv.	2 SI (pr, m); Cs (c); Brahmachari Maharaj Fr. Ps. Vad. 10; 5 ch; 5 tl; 2 m; gym; lib.
Mana;	9·0	Selu;	3·0; Tue.	..	7·0	rv.	Shri Mugaleshvar Fr. Ps. 7; 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Rithapūr—Msi —रिथपूर ..	W;	15·0	3·2;	3663;	907;	1313	Local;	..
Rohanā—Amt.—रोहना ..	SE;	22·4	1·0;	327;	77;	156	Nandgaonv Khandeshwar;	2·0
Rohanakheḍ—Amt.—रोहनखेड ..	N;	16·5	1·4;	419;	87;	175	Devara;	2·0
Rohanakheḍ—Msi.—रोहनखेड ..	SW;	15·0	4·3;	754;	186;	282	Mangrul;	3·0
Rohinīkheḍā—Mlg.—रोहिनीखेडा	..	6·0	1·7;	247;	47;	139	Kalamkhar;	4·0
Roṣanakheḍ—Msi.—रोषनखेड ..	E;	23·0	1·5;	1133;	256;	474	Suralı;	1·0
Rasulapūr Yeralā—Msi —रसुलपूर येरला	W;	0·1	Included in Urban Area I				..	...
Rustamapūr—Amt.—रुस्तमपूर ..	SE;	17·0	0·4;	1;	..	1	Thuganv-purna;	1·0
Rustamapūr—Dyr.—रुस्तमपूर ..	SW;	11·2	0 6;	344;	75;	156	Ramtirth;	1·0
Sādrābāḍī—Mlg.—साद्राबाडी ..	NE;	10·0	3·7;	835;	160;	371	Local;	..
Sāgaravāḍī—Dyr.—सागरवाडी .	W;	9·0	1·0;	115;	25;	55	Pimplod;	0·5
Sahadāpūr—Msi.—सहदापूर ..	..	..	1·7;	49;	3;	21	Rithapur;	1·4
Sahadāpūr—Msi.—सहदापूर ..	E;	23·5	0·9;	1;	1;	1	Varud;	1·5
Śahāpūr—Acr.—शहापूर ..	S;	14·0	1·1;	386;	69;	145	Asatapur;	..
Śahāpūr—Amt —शहापूर ..	NE;	9·0	..	481;	109;	105	Jalaka;	0·1
Śahāpūr—Amt.—शहापूर ..	S;	22·0	1·1;	314;	67;	178	Nandganv Khandeshavar;	1·4
Śahāpūr—Amt.—शहापूर ..	S;	30·0	1·3;	7;	2;	5	Mangrul Chaval;	2·0
Śahāpūr—Cdr.—शहापूर ..	E;	12·0	2·2;	297;	79;	121	Dhamanganv;	0·2
Śahāpūr—Dyr.—शहापूर ..	..	..	1·4;	252;	56;	110	Mahuli;	0·1
Śahāpūr—Dyr.—शहापूर ..	E;	5·0	Included in Urban Area I.					
Śahāpūr—Msi.—शहापूर ..	E;	22·7	0·5;	9;	5;	6	..	7·0
Śahāpūr N. Hirur—Acr.—शहापूर न. हिरुर.	SE;	14·0	0·8;	172;	27;	79	Tulajapur Gadhi;	1·0
Śahāpūr N. Javaḷā—Acr.—शहापूर न. जवळा.	E;	14·0	1·0;	375;	66;	131	Talvel;	2·0
Śahāpūr N. Vaḍgānv—Acr.—शहापूर न. वडगाव.	W;	4·0	2·1;	8;	1;	2	Achalpur;	..
Saidāpūr—Acr.—सैदापूर ..	SE;	14·0	0·4;	118;	28;	41	Kural;	1·0
Saidāpūr—Cdr.—सैदापूर ..	NE;	13·2	0·6;	83;	2;	29	Anjanvati;	..
Saidāpūr—Dyr.—सैदापूर ..	N;	10·0	1·2;	198;	46;	111	..	0·6

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Amravati;	25·0	Local; ..	Tue.	..	2·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); pyt; Cs (c); Mahanubhav Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 24tl; 11 m; 6 mq; 6 dg; 3 dh; 5 dp.
Badnera;	14·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	2·0; Sat.	Local;	0·6	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Amravati;	14·0	Devara;	2·0; Mon.	..	5·0	W	Sl (pr); ch.
Amravati;	30·0	Vichori;	2·0; ..	..	3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); tl.
Tukaithad;	16·0	Kalmkhar;	4·0; Sat.	..	4·0	W;rv	tl.
Narkhed;	20·0	Varud;	2·0; Wed.	..	0·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 4 tl; m; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
..	..	Thuganvpurna;	1·0; Fri.	Thuganv;	1·4	W;w.	tl
Banosa;	12·0	Karatkheda;	1·0; Tue.	Daryapur;	11·2	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Tukaithad;	7·0	Dedtalai;	3·0; Sun.	Dedtalai;	4·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; tl; dp (vet).
Banosa;	10·0	Pimplod;	0·5; Mon.	Yewada;	3·0	rv;t.	tl.
Amravati;	34·0	Rithapur;	1·4; Tue.	..	..	w.	..
Pandurana;	23·5	Varud;	1·5; Wed.	Varud;	1·5	w.	..
..	12·0	Asatapur;	.. ..	..	1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m.
..	8·0	Jalaka;	1·0; .	Savrdi;	2·0	w	tl.
Chandur;	10·0	Nandganv;	2·0; Sat.	..	3·0	w.	Sl (pr), tl.
Badnera;	25·0	Mangrul Chavul;	2·0; Thu.	Shivani,	5·0	W.	tl.
Dhamanganv;	2·4	Dattapur;	2·0; Sun.	Local;	..	W.	tl.
Banosa;	5·0	Banosa;	5·0; Thu	..		rv.	..
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	..
Pandurana;	22.0	Varud;	7·0; Wed	..	..	w.	..
Achalpur;	13·0	Tulajapur Gadhi,	1·0; Tue.	..	4·0	w;rv.	tl.
Amravati;	21·0	Javala;	.. Thu.	..	3·0	w;w.	tl.
Achalpur;	..	Achalpur;	.. Thu.	Achalpur;	.	w;rv.	tl.
Achalpur;	13·0	Chandur Bazar;	6·0; Sun	..	2·0	w;rv.	tl.
Dhamanganv;	12·0	Anjanvati;	.. Wed.	..	0·2	w	..
Kokarda;	2·0	Kokarda;	2·0; Fri.	..	10·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); Hanuman Jayanti Fr.Ct.Vad. 16; 2tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Saidāpūr—Dyr.—सैदापूर ..	N; 15·0	0·4; 82; 19; 44	Kasbegavhan; 0·4
Sākarā—Amt.—साकरा ..	S; 18·0	1·8; 311; 62; 151	Vadura; 2·0
Sākharī—Dyr.—साखरी ..	NE; 16·0	3·0; 756; 162; 405	Khallar; 2·0
Sālabardī—Msi.—सालबर्डी ..	N, 6·0	0·9; 129; 30; 71	Pala; 3·0
Salaī—Mlg.—सलाई ..	NE; 7·0	4·7; 286; 46; 162	Kalamkhar; 3·0
Sālebād—Acr.—सालेबाद ..	W; 2·0	0·4; 45; 8; ..	Achalpur; 2·0
Sālepūr—Acr.—सालेपूर ..	N; 6·0	1·3; 463; 108; 266	Paratvada; 3·4
Sālīmapūr—Cdr.—सालीमपूर ..	E; 14·0	1·2; 194; 45; 105	Nimbhora; 2·0
Sāloḍ—Amt.—सालोड ..	SE; 16·0	1·8; 110; 26; 72	Mahuli Chor; 2·0
Sāloḍ—Amt.—सालोड ..	S; 35·0	4·7; 1278; 281; 509	Local; ..
Sālorā Bk.—Amt.—सालोरा बु. ..	N; 7·0	1·0; 254; 52; 97	Nandura Bk.; 1·0
Sālorā Bk.—Cdr.—सालोरा बु. ..	N; 34·0	3·5; 622; 135; 297	Shendola Bk.; 2·0
Sālorā Kh.—Amt.—सालोरा खु. ..	N; 12·0	1·3; 1079; 254; 492	Local; ..
Sālorā Kh.—Cdr.—सालोरा खु. ..	N; 9.0	2.4; 215; 49; 121	Jalaka Jagtap; 2·0
Sāmadā—Dyr.—सामदा ..	W; 4·0	3·2; 907; 200; 413	Daryapur; 4·0
Śāmapūr—Acr.—शामपूर ..	S; 12·2	0·7; 255; 39; 115	Kolha; 2·0
Samaśerapūr—Dyr.—समशेरपूर ..	NW; 10·0	0·7; 206; 53; 89	Nimbhari; 1·0
Sāmbhorā—Acr.—सांभोरा ..	NE; 12·0	1·8; 109; 25; 70	Ghatladaki; 2·0
Sāṅgaḷud—Dyr.—सांगळुद ..	W; 4·0	6·5; 1455; 302; 745	Local; ..
Sāṅgavā Bk.—Dyr.—सांगवा बु. ..	NE; 16·0	2·1; 656; 126; 307	Yesurni; 3·0
Sāṅgavā Kh.—Dyr.—सांगवा खु. ..	NE; 17·0	0·4; 34; 7; 17	Asatpur; 2·0
Sāṅgavī N. Khairī—Acr.—सांगवी न. खैरी.	SW; 14·0	0·9; 168; 38; 94	Khairi; 0·1
Saṅgrāmapūr—Amt.—संग्रामपूर. .	SE; 26·2	0·6; 77; 19; 45	Shivani; 0·2
Sāṅgulavāḍā—Cdr.—सांगुलवाडा	SE, 4·0	1·6; 145; 33; 93	Satephal; 2·0
Śaṅkarapūr—Acr.—शंकरपूर ..	S; 10·0	0·7; 96; 13; 44	Raseganv; 3·0
Saramastāpūr—Amt.—सरमस्तापूर.	W; 24·0	0·5; 111; 23; 57	Kholapur; 2·0
Sarphābād—Acr.—सर्फाबाद ..	SE; 14·0	1·7; 914; 187; 363	Tuljapur Gadhi; 1·0
Sarphābād—Dyr.—सर्फाबाद ..	SE; 11·0	1·0; 129; 27; 64	Kamalapur; 1·0
Sarphābād—Dyr.—सर्फाबाद ..	N; 23·0	0·3; 59; 13; 26	Nimkhed Bazar; 1·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Kapus Talani; 5·0	Kasbegavhan; 0·4; Sat.	.. 10·0	w;rv.	tl.
Badnera; 12·0	Dhanora Phasi; 3·0; Thu.	.. 5·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kokarda; 6·0	Khallar; 2·0; Wed.	Stage; 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Nagpanchami Fr. Srn. Sud. 5; 2 tl; gym; 2 lib.
Amravati, 38·0	Morshi; 5·0; Tue.	Dapori; 4·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Mahashivratra Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; tl; mq; dg.
Tukaithad; 16·0	Kalamkhar; 2·0; Sat.	Kalamkhar; 3·0	..	tl.
Achalpur; 2·0	Achalpur; 2·0; Thu.	Achalpur; ..	w;rv.	..
Achalpur; 5·0	Paratvada; 3·4; Thu.	.. 4·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; lib.
Talani; 2·0	Pulganv; 6·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	w.	tl.
Timtala; 8·0	Mahuli Chor; 2·0; Tue.	Shirpur; 2·0	w.	tl.
Badnera; 22·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; mq; dh; lib.
Amravati; 10·0	Nandura Bk.; 1·0; Fri.	.. 3·0	w;w.	2 tl; ch.
Amravati; 19·0	Shivanganv; 2·0; Wed.	Shivanganv; 3·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg.
Amravati; 14·0	Mahuli Jagir; 2·0; Mon.	.. 2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; mq; dh; lib.
Chandur; 9·0	Kurha; 3·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	W.	tl.
Banosa; 4·0	Banosa; 4·0; Thu.	Daryapur; 4·0	n.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; lib.
Pathrot; 5·0	Kakada; 2·0; Sun.	Pathrot; 9·2	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Kapus Talani; 2·0	Nimbhari; 1·0; Sat.	Daryapur; 9·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Achalpur; 30·0	Chandur Bazar; 12·0; Sun.	.. ..	w;rv.	tl.
Banosa; 4·0	Banosa; 4·0; Thu.	Local; .	w;w	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs (c); 6 tl; lib; Cch.
Kokarda; 12·0	Rangarvasani; 1·0; Thu.	.. 0·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Kapus Talani; 6·0	Asatpur; 1·0; Tue.	.. 1·0	w;rv.	2 tl.
Kushta Bk.; 11·0	Donoda; 0·2; Wed.	.. 3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; dp.
Badnera; 20·0	Shivani; 0·2; Mon.	Shivani; 0·2	w;rv.	..
Dipori; 1·0	Chandur; 5·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	w.	2 tl.
Kushta Bk.; 6·0	Yevata; 0·3; Sat.	.. 5·0	w;w; rv.	tl.
Amravati; 18·0	Kholapur; 2·0; Fri.	.. 4·0	w.	tl.
Achalpur; 13·0	Tuljapur Gadhi; 1·0; Tue.	.. 4·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); mq.
Kokarda; 6·0	Kokarda; 4·0; Fri.	Ramaganv; 2·0	w;w.	tl.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Nimkhed Bazar; 1·0; Sat.	.. 1·0	W;w.	..

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Sarphāpūr—Acr.—सरफापूर ..	NE;	13·0	0·6;	513;	113;	229	Local;	..
Sārsī—Amt.—सार्सी ..	NE;	27·0	2·8;	384;	89;	158	Brahmanvada Govindpur;	5·0
Sārsī—Amt.—सार्सी ..	S;	14·0	3·7;	775;	191;	394	Local;	..
Śaryatapūr—Msi.—शर्यतपूर ..	W;	18·0	1·3;	167;	39;	63	Belora (Majara);	..
Sāsan Bk —Dyr.—सासन बु. ..	W;	5·0	1·5;	815;	180;	351	Sasan Ramapur;	0·1
Sāsana Rāmāpūr—Dyr.—सासन रामापूर.	W;	5·0	2·6;	967;	223;	468	Local;	..
Sātanūr—Msi.—सातनूर ..	E;	27·0	2·7;	544;	129;	302	Local;	..
Sātaragāṅv—Amt.—सातरगांव ..	SE;	18·0	3·0;	935;	218;	527	Manjari;	2·0
Sātaragāṅv—Cdr.—सातरगांव ..	N;	26·4	6·7;	1366;	303;	674	Local;	..
Sātegāṅv—Dyr.—सातेगांव ..	N;	14·0	5·1;	3198;	663;	1277	Local;	..
Sātephaḷ—Cdr.—सातेफळ ..	S;	6·0	7·8;	1469;	327;	730	Local;	..
Sattīruīpāṭhā Mlg —सत्तीरुईपाठा	..	..	1.9	185;	38;	94;	Anjanganv;	12·0
Sātūrṇā—Amt.—सातूर्णा ..	..	..	3·7;	914;	178;	402		..
Sātūrṇā—Amt.—सातूर्णा ..	..	..	Included in Urban Area I.				..	
Sātūrṇā (Rural Area)—Amt.—सातूर्णा (ग्रामीण विभाग)	S;	2·0	1·0;	43;	14;	13	Amravati;	2·0
Saundaḷī Hirāpūr—Dyr. सौंदळी हिरापूर.	W;	6·0	2·1;	236;	45;	91	Daryapur;	6·0
Sāur—Amt.—साउर ..	N;	16·0	3·5;	2485;	551;	1064	Local;	..
Sāvaḷā—Cdr.—सावळा ..	SE;	16·0	3·6;	894;	210;	452	Jalka;	1·4
Sāvalakheḍā—Mlg.—सावलखेडा	N;	21·0	1·3;	184;	28;	109	Dharni;	24·0
Sāvaḷāpūr—Acr.—सावळापूर ..	S;	18·0	3·5;	1428;	314;	577	Local;	..
Sāvaḷī Bk —Acr.—सावळी बु. ..	S;	12·0	1·4;	351,	70;	145	Kolha;	4·0
Sāvaḷī Dātūrā—Acr —सावळी दातुरा.	N;	4·2	2·0;	404;	83;	179	Paratvada,	3·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Achalpur;	10·0	Shirrjaganv Kasaba;	3·0; Sat.	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c), 2 tl,
Chandur;	15·0	Nerpingalai;	4·0; Thu.	..	7·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Badnera;	9·0	Dhanora Phasi;	2·0; Thu.	..	4·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora (Majara);	.. Fri.	Rithapur;	3·0	w.	Included in Belora village.
Banosa;	6·0	Banosa;	4·0; Thu.	Yewda;	4·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; tl; mq; lib.
Banosa;	6·0	Banosa;	4·0; Thu.	Arola;	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); pyt; Bhogeshvar Mahadev Srn. Sud. 15; 3 tl; mq; lib.
Mulatai;	21·0	Shendurjana;	3·0; Fri.	Shendurjana;	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (fmg); 2 tl.
Timtala;	6·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	3·0; Sat.	..	5·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Chandur;	24·0	Local;	.. Sun.	..	23·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 5 tl; m; gym; 2 lib.
Anjanganv;	6·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Pandhari;	3·0	W;rv; n.	4 Sl (2 pr, 2 m); pyt; 2 Cs (fmg); Mahadev Fr. Ct. Sud. 8; 10 tl; mq; dg; gym; 2 lib; 3 dp.
Dipori;	3·0	Chandur;	5·0; Sun.	..	1·4	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; 2 m; ch; lib.
Anjanganv;	12·0	Anjanganv;	12·0; Mon	..	..	..	
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	w;n	
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	.. ..
Amravati;	2·0	Amravati;	2·0; Sun-Wed	Local;	..	W.	tl.
Banosa;	6·0	Banosa;	6·0; Thu.	Daryapur,	6·0	n	tl.
Amravati;	16·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Ashti;	5·0	w.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 2 Cs, Nagpanchami Fr. Srn. Sud 5; 6 tl; m; mq; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Dhamanganv;	4·0	Dhamanganv;	4·0; Sun	..	1·0	W.	Sl (pr), Cs; tl.
Tukaihad;	44·0	Bairagad;	4·0; Mon	Dharni,	20·0	W.	
Achalpur,	17·0	Local;	.. Sun	Thuganv;	2·0	w;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m), 5 tl; mq; ch; dp
Kushta Bk.;	7·0	Asatpur;	3·0; Thu.	..	5·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr), Cs (c); tl
Achalpur;	5·0	Paratvada;	3·0; Thu.	Paratvada;	3·0	w,w	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Sāvaḷī Kh.—Acr.—सावळी खु.	S;	12·0	1·2;	268;	54;	114	Khairi;	..
Sāvaḷīkheḍā—Mlg.—सावळीखेडा	SW;	20·0	5·8;	807;	166;	441	Dharni;	20·0
Sāvaner—Amt.—सावनेर	S;	14·0	5·0;	1163;	267;	666	Mokhad;	2·0
Sāvaṅgā—Amt.—सावंगा	NE;	18·0	1·5;	526;	103;	244	Antora;	0·6
Sāvaṅgā—Cdr.—सावंगा	S;	13·4	0·9;	541;	133;	298	Yerad;	2·0
Sāvaṅgā—Msi.—सावंगा	..	..	2·9;	1037;	227;	519	Loni;	1·0
Sāvaṅgā Gurav—Amt.—सावंगा गुरव.	S;	19·2	1·9;	255;	59;	121	Dhanora Gurav;	1·0
Sāvaṅgā Viṭhobā—Cdr.—सावंगा विठोबा.	W;	6·0	2·9;	799;	178;	376	Manjarkheda;	3·0
Sāvaṅgī—Msi.—सावंगी	NE;	30·0	3·9;	1526;	349;	793	Chandas;	2·0
Sāvaṅgī Magrāpūr—Cdr.—सावंगी मग्रापूर.	NE;	2·0	3·7;	840;	173;	390	Chandur;	3·0
Sāvaṅgī Saṅgam—Cdr.—सावंगी संगम.	SW,	6·6	1·0;	359;	75;	192	Palaskheda;	2·0
Sāvarḍī—Amt.—सावर्डी	NW;	13·0	3·3;	405;	89;	300	Jalka;	2·0
Sāvarkheḍ—Msi.—सावरखेड	SW;	12·4	5·2;	856;	209;	492	..	..
Sāvarkheḍā—Amt.—सावरखेडा	W;	6·0	0·8;	344;	73;	190	Valganv;	4·0
Sāvaryā—Mlg.—सावऱ्या	S;	12·0	1·8;	234;	39;	106	Dharni;	11·0
Sāyakheḍā—Acr.—सायखेडा	NE;	12·0	0·9;	33;	7;	15	Karanja Baheram;	1·0
Sāyavāḍā—Msi.—सायवाडा	W;	10·0	1·7;	105;	27;	77	Ambada;	3·0
Sāyat—Amt.—सायत	W;	14·0	4·7;	1758;	384;	869	Local;	..
Sayyadgāṅv—Dyr.—सय्यदगांव	..	..	0·3;	99;	19;	50	Kokarda;	0·3
Śegāṅv—Amt.—शेगाव	N;	0·6	1·9;	2464;	702;	333	Amravati;	1·0
Śekāpūr—Acr.—शेकापूर	SE;	4·1	1·0;	14;	4;	11	Bhuganv;	1·0
Śekāpūr—Msi.—शेकापूर	NE;	27·0	0·7;	1;	1;	..	..	..
Śekāpūr—Dyr.—शेकापूर	N;	14·0	0·7;	121;	29;	62	Takarkhed More;	2·0
Śelagāṅv—Dyr.—शेलगांव	N;	24·0	1·4;	271;	66;	127	Dahiganv;	1·0
Śelu Guṇḍ—Amt.—शेलु गुंड	N;	18·0	2·6;	617;	132;	361	Dhanora Phasi;	1·0
Śelū Naṭavā—Cdr.—शेलू नटवा	SW;	14·0	1·6;	744;	193;	408	Chikhali Vaidhy;	0·2
Śendaṇī—Amt.—शेंदणी	SW;	12·0	5·0;	1;	1;	..	..	..
Śendoḷā Bk.—Cdr.—शेंदोळा बु.	N;	16·0	4·5;	1301;	282;	647	Local;	..

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Kashta Bk.; 8·0	Asatpur; 3·0; Thu.	.. 5·0	w;rv.	Cs (c); tl.
Tukaithad; 5·0	Raytalai; 5·0; Sat.	Tukaithad; 4·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs.
Timtala; 4·0	Mahuli Chor; 2·0; Tue.	Mahuli Chor; 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl; lib.
Amravati; 17·0	Antora; 0·6; Tue.	Yavali; 3·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Chandur; 12·0	Ghuikhed; 1·0; Wed.	Shivani Rasulapur; 9·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Pandurana; 31·0	Loni; 1·0; Wed.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr).
Badnera; 19·0	Mahuli Chor; 2·0; Tue.	.. 0·3	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Malkhed; 3·0	Malkhed; 3·0; Tue; Sun.	.. 3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 5 tl; gym; ch.
Pandurana; 17·0	Local; .. Sun.	Vathoda; 2·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Chandur; 3·0	Chandur; 3·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; m; 2 dg.
Chandur; 6·0	Dhanora Mogal; 3·0; Mon.	.. 6·4	w;w.	2 tl.
Amravati; 12·0	Nandganv Peth; 4·0; Fri.	Local; ..	W.	Sl (pr); tl; dg; ch.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 0·1	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 5 tl; m; dg; ch; lib; dp.
Amravati; 6·0	Valganv; 4·0; Thu.	.. 3·0	rv.	tl.
Tukaithad; 23·0	Dharni; 12·0; Fri	Dharni; 12·0	W;rv.	tl.
Achalpur; 9·0	Shirajganv Kasaba; 3·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati; 45·0	Khed; 3·0; Mon.	.. ..	W.	2 tl.
Kurum; 7·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 6·0	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 3 tl; m; mq, dh; 2 lib; dp.
Kokarda, 0·3	Kokarda; 0·3; Fri.	.. ..	..	..
Amravati; 1·0	Amravati; 1·0; Wed; Sun.	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); 6 tl; ch.
Achalpur; 4·0	Jaivadi; 0·2; Wed.	.. 0·1	W;w.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W	
Kapus Talani; 1·0	Kapus Talani; 1·0; Tue.	.. 5·0	W;w.	Cs; tl.
Anjanganv; 5·0	Anjanganv; 5·0; Mon.	.. 3·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Badnera; 12·0	Dhanora Phasi; 1·0, Thu.	Loni; 5·0	W.	Sl (pr); pyt; Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 4 tl.
Chandur; 16·0	Local; .. Sun.	Shivani Rasulapur; 2·4	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Shri Mandev Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 2 tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 5·0	w	
Chandur; 18·0	Sivanganv; 2·0; Wed.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Śendoḷā Kh.—Cdr.—शेंदोळा खु.	N; 30·0	4·2; 1432; 347; 578	.. ..
Śendurjanā—Cdr.—शेंदुरजना ..	S; 10·0	6·9; 1536; 368; 710	Local; ..
Śendūrjanā (Rural Area)—Msi.—शेंदूरजना (ग्रामीण विभाग)	.. ..	2·8; 156; 41; 91	.. ..
Śendūrajanā (Urban Area)—Msi.—शेंदूरजना (नागरी विभाग)	N; 27·0	3·9; 11610; 2413; 4826	Local; ..
Śendurjanā Bk.—Cdr.—शेंदुरजना बु.	N; 21·0	7·0; 1848; 7416; 832	Local; ..
Śendurjanā Kh.—Cdr.—शेंदुरजना खु.	N, 14·0	1·5; 539; 100; 238	Kavadgavhan; 1·0
Śevatī—Amt.—शेवती ..	NE; 7·0	4·9; 504; 112; 258	Nandganv Peth; 3·0
Siddhanāthapūr—Amt.—सिद्धनाथपूर.	S; 20·0	0·9; 456; 93; 247	Vadura; 2·0
Śidoḍī—Cdr.—शिदोडी ..	SE; 24·0	1·4; 500; 114; 321	Pimpalkhuta; 3·0
Simorā—Msi.—सिमोरा ..	.. ..	1·0; 37; 14; ..	.. ..
Simorā—Msi.—सिमोरा ..	S; 6·0	2·5; 570; 133; 285	Pardi; 3·0
Śindavāḍī—Cdr.—शिंदवाडी ..	N; 16·0	1·4; 279; 50; 151	Anjansingi; 5·0
Sindī Bk.—Acr.—सिंदी बु. ..	SW; 12·0	4·9; 2534; 520; 1088	Local; ..
Sindī Kh.—Acr.—सिंदी खु. ..	E; 6·0	1·2; 2; 1; 1	Paratvada; 3·0
Śiṅganāpūr—Dyr.—शिगनापूर ..	E; 13·0	6·4; 1964; 446; 891	Local; ..
Śiṅganavāḍī—Dyr.—शिगनवाडी.	E; 5·0	2·2; 642; 138; 340	Kālashi; 1·0
Śigolī—Amt.—शिगोली ..	S; 18·2	0·7; 62; 18; 39	Dhanora Gurav; 3·0
Śiṅgorī—Msi.—शिंगोरी ..	E; 28·0	2·4; 756; 162; 418	Vadala; 1·0
Śipagānv—Amt.—शिपगांव ..	SW, 10·0	1·2; 130; 30; 65	Phul Amla; ..
Śirajagānv—Cdr.—शिरजगांव ..	N; 27·0	2·8; 2111; 514; 1104	Local; ..
Śirajagānv—Cdr.—शिरजगांव ..	E; 4·0	3·1; 850; 206; 404	Local; ..
Śirajagānv—Dyr.—शिरजगाव ..	N; 21·0	0·6; 73; 16; 38	Anjanganv; 2·0
Śirajagānv—Msi.—शिरजगांव ..	S; 17·0	2·7; 825; 206; 393	Mangrul; 1·0
Sirajagānv Aṇḍak—Acr.—सिरजगांव अडंक.	E; 12·0	0·5; 199; 36; 70	Kharala; 2·0

Railway Station; Distance.		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
..	..	..	.. ..	Local;	..	W.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs; 4 tl; m.
Dhamınganv;	6·0	Local;	.. ..	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; 3 tl; 3 m; dg; gym; lib.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Mulatai;	20·0	M.lkapur;	0·1; Fri.	Local;	..	W;w.	4 Sl (2 pr, 2 m); 6 tl; 3 mq; gym; 2 dp.
Chandur;	21·0	Local;	.. Tue	Local;	.	W;W	2 Sl(pr, m); 3 Cs (2 c, mp); 2 tl; Shivaratra Fr Mg. Sud. 11; mq; lib; dp.
Chandur;	18·0	Shendurjana Bk.;	3·5; Tue	Local;	..	W;w.	Sl (pr), Cs; tl; lib.
Amravati;	7·0	Nandganv Peth;	3·0; Fri.	Nandganv Peth;	3·0	W	Sl (pr); Cs (tmg); tl; mq.
Badnera;	22·0	Dhanora Phasi;	2·0; ..	..	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Dhmanganv;	12·0	Chinchpur;	2·0; Sat.	.	6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	W.	
Amravati;	38·0	Pimpalkhuta;	2·0; Sun.	Morshi;	6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl.
Arvi;	7·0	Anjansingi;	5·0; Sun	Kurha,	5·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Devi Fr. Ct; 2 tl.
Pathrot;	0·3	Local;	.. Wed.	..	3·0	W;w	11 Sl (5 pr, 5 m, h); 2 Cs (c); 5 tl; mq; gym; ch; 2 lib; 3 dp.
	4·0	Paratvada;	3·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W.	tl.
Banosa;	11·0	Chendakapur;	1·4; Fri	..	0·4	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (mp); 3 tl; lib; dp
..	1·0	Daryapur;	4·0; Thu.	..	4·0	w;t.	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	10·0	Mahuli Chor;	3·0; Tue.	Dhanora Gurav;	1·0	w.	tl.
Pandurana;	45·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Hivarkhed;	7·0	W;rv	Sl (pr); dp.
Takali;	2·0	Badnera;	7·0; Mon	..	..	W.	tl; m; ch.
Amrav.ti;	22·0	Local;	.. Wed	M-jhari,	2·0	W.w	2 Sl (pr, m) 2 Cs 3 tl; gym; lib.
Chandur;	4·0	Chandur;	4·0; Sun.	..	4·0	W;rv.	Cs; 3 tl.
Anjanganv;	2·0	Anjangaon;	2·0; Mon.	..	2·0	W;w.	tl.
Amravati;	18·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Karajganv;	3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr. m); Cs (c); tl.
Amravati;	21·0	Javala;	2·0; Thu.	..	1·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office; Distance. (4)	
Śirajagāṅvbanḍ—Acr.—सिरजगांवबंड.	E;	14·0	2·7;	2976;	647;	111	Local;	..
Śirajagāṅv Kasabā—Acr.—शिरजगांव कसबा.	NE;	14·0	17·8;	8589;	1802;	3510	Local;	..
Śirakheḍ—Msi.—शिरखेड ..	SW;	10·0	3·4;	2548;	545;	977	Local;	..
Śirāḷā—Amt.—शिराळा ..	N;	16·0	16·7;	5394;	2064;	2081	Local;	..
Śiralas—Msi.—शिरलस ..	S;	16·0	7·0;	680;	167;	340	Nerpingalai;	3·0
Śirapūr—Mlg.—शिरपूर ..	W;	3·0	1·5;	519;	96;	269	Kalamkhar;	3·0
Śirapūr—Msi.—शिरपूर ..	..	..	2·9;	82;	24;	47	..	..
Śirapūr—Msi.—शिरपूर ..	..	..	1·0;	16;	7;	11	..	..
Śirapūr—Amt.—शिरपूर ..	SE;	20·0	3·4;	553;	131;	268	Mokhad;	1·0
Śirasagāṅv—Dyr.—शिरसगांव ..	..	..	2·1;	546;	124;	303	.	..
Śivaṇagāṅv—Cdr.—शिवणगांव ..	N;	32·0	3·3;	1520;	382;	635	Local;	..
Śivaṅgā—Msi.—शिवंगा ..	W;	18·0	0·4;	80;	21;	35	Belora (Majara);	..
Śivaṇī—Amt.—शिवणी ..	SW;	11·4	1·3;	364;	83;	174	Uttamsara;	2·0
Śivanī—Amt.—शिवनी ..	SE;	26·0	2·6;	727;	174;	343	Local;	..
Śivaṇī—Cdr.—शिवणी ..	SW;	1·0	1·8;	57;	14;	36	Chandur;	1·0
Śivaṇī Kh;—Amt.—शिवणी खु. ..	SW;	13·0	0·7;	296;	60;	121	Uttamsara;	3·0
Śivāpūr—Amt.—शिवापूर ..	W;	8·0	0·7;	144;	34;	84	Alanganv;	2·0
Śivapurī—Msi.—शिवपुरी ..	W;	18·0	0·5;	150;	34;	54	Belora (Majara);	..
Śivar Bk.—Dyr.—शिवर बु. ..	W;	4·0	3·0;	825;	162;	432	Local;	..
Śivar Kh.—Dvr.—शिवर खु. ..	SW;	3·0	2·8;	765;	153;	349	Local;	..
Śivarā—Amt.—शिवरा ..	S;	31·0	2·7;	656;	158;	360	Salod;	2·0
Śivarā—Msi.—शिवरा ..	S;	12·0	1·4;	13;	3;	7	Rajurvadi;	2·0
Śivārakheḍā—Dyr.—शिवारखेडा	NE;	17·0	0·6;	95;	21;	53	Khallar;	2·0
Somavār Kheḍā—Mlg.—सोमवार खेडा	..	..	2·9;	418;	80;	246	Gaulkheda;	1·8
Sonābarḍī—Mlg.—सोनाबर्डी ..	W;	6·0	2·1;	214;	32;	121	Dharni;	5·0
Sonagāṅv—Cdr.—सोनगांव ..	SE;	2·0	3·5;	1026;	250;	551	Chandur;	2·0
Sonagāṅv—Dyr.—सोनगांव ..	N;	12·0	1·8;	610;	137;	275	Local;	..
Sonakhās—Dvr.—सोनखास ..	..	4·0	1·1;	78;	20;	29	Lehegaonv;	0·1
Sonakheḍ—Dyr.—सोनखेड ..	W;	12·4	0·7;	156;	33;	68	Ramtirth;	4·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.			Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other Information.
(5)		(6)			(7)		(8)	(9)
Achalpur;	19·0	Local;	..	Wed.	Stage		W;w.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); Cs (c); Rajaneshvar Fr. Asd. Vad. 12; 8 tl; 2 mq; 2 dg.
Achalpur;	14·0	Local;	..	Sat.	Local;	..	W.	6 Sl (2 pr, 2 m, 2 h); 2 Cs (c)! 20 tl; 3 mq; gym; 3 lib; 7 dp; Cch.
Amravati;	25·0	Local;	..	Fri.	..	0·6	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (mis); Ganapati Utsav Bdp. Sud. 15; 9 tl; m; mq; ch; 2 dp.
Amravati;	14·0	Local;	..	Wed.	Local;	..	W;w.	7 Sl (3 pr, m, h, 2 clg); pyt; 2 Cs; tl; 2 mq; dg; dh; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Amravati;	29·0	Nerpingalai;	3·0;	Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Tukaithad;	22·0	Dharni;	4·0;	Fri	Dharni;	3·0	W;rv.	
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	W.	
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	w.	
Badnera;	20·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	2·0;	Sat.	Local;	0·5	w.	Sl (pr); Mahashivratra Fr. Phg. Sud. 1; 2 tl.
..	..	..	.	..	..	..	rv.	Sl (pr).
Amravati,	18·0	Local;	..	Wed.	..	0·1	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; m; dh; lib.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora (Majara);	..	Fri.	Rithapur;	3·0	W.	Included in Belora village.
Takali;	0·4	Ganori;	2·0;	Tue.	..	4·0	W	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs; tl.
Badnera;	20·0	Local;	..	Mon.	Local;	..	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; dp.
Chandur;	1·0	Chandur;	1·0;	Sun	..	..	W.	tl.
Takali Bk.;	1·4	Badnera;	5·0;	Mon.	..	6·0	W	Sl (pr); tl.
Badnera;	8·0	Bhatkuli;	2·0;	Fri.	.	0·6	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	25·0	Belora (Majara);	..	Fri	Rithapur;	2·0	W.	Included in Belora village.
Banosa;	4·0	Banosa;	4·0;	Thu.	..	4·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Banosa;	3·0	Banosa;	3·0;	Thu.	Banosa;	3·0	w;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); pyt; tl.
Badnera;	22·0	Local;	..	Sat.	..	11·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Amravati;	32·0	Rajurvadi;	2·0;	Sat.	Rajurvadi;	2·4	w;rv.	
Kapus Talani;	8·0	Asatpur;	2·0;	Thu	Stage;	1·0	w;rv.	2 tl.
Achalpur;	14·0	Gaulkheda;	1·0;	Tue.	..	..	..	
Tukaithad;	18·0	Dharni;	5·0;	Fri.	Dharni;	5·0	W.	
Chandur;	1·0	Chandur;	2·0;	Sun.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (m); 2 Cs; 4 tl.
Kapus Talani;	1·0	Kapus Talani;	2·0;	Tue.	..	6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 Cs; 2 tl.
Lehegaov;	1·0	Lehegaov;	0·1;	Tue.	Daryapur;	4·0	w;rv.	2 tl; m.
Karatkhed;	10·0	Karatkhed;	2·0;	Tue.	Dahihanda;	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Sonāpūr—Mlg.—सोनापूर ..	.. ..	2·9; 537; 92; 303	.. ..
Sonārakheḍā—Amt.—सोनारखेडा	W; 22·0	0·8; 347; 72; 168	Vathoda; 1·0
Sonorī—Acr.—सोनोरी ..	E; 24·0	1·3; 576; 134; 252	Local; ..
Sonegānv—Cdr.—सोनेगांव ..	E; 18·0	2·8; 737; 156; 375	Borganv; 2·0
Sonorā Bk.—Cdr.—सोनोरा बु. ..	SW; 6·4	2·1; 569; 138; 290	.. 7·0
Sonorā Kākaḍe—Cdr.—सोनोरा काकडे.	E; 22·0	1·6; 306; 78; 172	Jhada; 1·0
Sonorā Kh.—Cdr.—सोनोरा खु. ..	SW; 6·4	1·3; 175; 46; 85	Palaskhed; 3·0
Subhānapūr—Acr.—सुभानपूर ..	NE; 11·0	1·5; 209; 53; 115	Karanja Baheram; 1·0
Sujāpūr—Dyr.—सुजापूर ..	E; 7·0	2·0; 440; 100; 209	Kalashi; ..
Sukaḷī—Amt.—सुकळी ..	W; 2·0	2·6; 717; 164; 331	Amravati; 2·0
Sukaḷī—Amt.—सुकळी ..	S; 20·0	0·8; 331; 80; 188	Pimpri Nipani; 1·4
Sukaḷī—Dyr.—सुकळी ..	W; 14·0	2·0; 526; 140; 219	Bhamod; 4·0
Sulatānapūr—Acr.—सुलतानपूर	E; 24·0	0·7; 603; 142; 245	Local; ..
Sulatānapūr—Amt.—सुलतानपूर	N; 6·0	0·6; 63; [illegible]; 28	Valganv; 1·4
Sulatānapūr—Amt.—सुलतानपूर	S; 23·6	0·9; 206; 47; 104	Pimpri Nipani; 2·0
Sulatānapūr—Cdr.—सुलतानपूर	SE; 3·0	0·5; 47; 10; 28	Javare; 3·0
Sulatānapūr—Cdr.—सुलतानपूर	S; 1? 0	1·5; 634; 127; 370	Local; ..
Supalavāḍā—Cdr.—सुपलवाडा ..	SE; 5·0	1·6; 581; 136; 313	Tivara; 2·0
Surajī—Dyr.—सुरजी .	.. ..	2·0; 260; 55; 125	.. ..
Surajī—Dyr.—सुरजी .	.. ..	Included in Urban Area I.	.. ..
Suraḷī—Acr.—सुरळी ..	NE; 21·0	3·6; 1100; 248; 463	Local; ..
Suraḷī—Msi.—सुरळी ..	E; 25·0	1·6; 1182; 255; 522	Local, ..
Suravāḍā—Acr.—सुरवाडा .	SW; 6·0	1·2; 204; 41; 100	Chamak Bk.; 0·2
Suravāḍī Bk.—Msi.—सुरवाडी बु.	W; 7·0	1·8; 297; 64; 152	Hivarkhed; 2·0
Suravāḍī Kh.—Msi.—सुरवाडी खु	.. ..	0·9; 421; 88; 205	Hivarkhed; 2·0
Suryakheḍ—Msi.—सुर्यखेड .	NE; 23·0	1·0; 14; 5; 1	. ..
Susaradā—Mlg.—सुसर्दा ..	SW; 15·0	3·7; 981; 152, 560	Sadrabadi; 4·0
Ṭākaḷī—Amt.—टाकळी .	N; 8·0	1·6; 1092; 236; 447	Nandura Bk.; 2·0
Ṭākaḷī—Amt.—टाकळी .	.. ..	1·5; 1;	.. ..
Ṭākaḷī—Dyr.—टाकळी ..	S; 6·0	1·7; 706; 160; 273	Local; ..
Ṭākaḷī Bk.—Amt.—टाकळी बु. ..	S; 14·0	3·4; 951; 212; 419	Loni; 2·0
Ṭākaḷī Gilabā—Amt.—टाकळी गिलबा. ..	S; 18·0	0·9; 267; 56; 151	Pimpri Nipani; [illegible]

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Amravati; 18·0	Vathoda; 1·0; Mon.	.. 6·0	w; v.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 27·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 4·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 5 tl; m; 2 lib; dp.
Pulganv; 6·0	Pulganv; 6·0; Mon.	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
.. 10·0	Gujari; .. Tue.	.. 10·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt. Cs; 4 tl.
Pulganv; 6·0	Pulganv; 6·0; Mon.	Pulganv; 6·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Chandur; 6·0	Rajura; 3·0 Tue.	.. 6·4	W.	tl.
Achalpur; 12·0	Shirajganv Kasba; 4·0; Sat.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Bhujavada; 3·0	Banosa; .. Thu.	.. .	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati; 2·0	Amravati; 2·0; Wed; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Badnera; 12·0	Papal; 2·0; Sun.	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kinkhed; 9·0	Dahihanda; 1·0; Sat.	Dahihanda, 1·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl.
Amravati; 27·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 4·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m); 2 tl; lib; dp.
Amravati; 6·0	Valganv; 1·4; Thu.	.. 1·5	w;rv.	tl.
Badnera; 14·0	Mahuli Chor; 7·0; Tue.	Dhanora Gurav; 3·0	w.	tl.
Chandur; 28·0	Shendurjana; 6·0; Tue.	.. 3·0	W.	3 tl; dh.
Chandur; 13·0	Local; .. Thu.	Shivani; 6·0	W	Cs.
Dipori; 2·0	Chandur; 6·0; Sun.	.. 1·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
.. ..	.. .. .	.. ..	W.	
.. ..	.. ..	.. ..	..	.. ..
Achalpur; 22·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 7 tl.
Pandurana; 17·0	Varud; 2·0; Wed.	Local; ..	W;w	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 Cs; 3 tl; dg; lib; dp.
Chamak Bk ; 1·0	Chamak Bk.; 0·2; Fri.	Achalpur; 6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl.
Amravati; 45·0	Hivarkhed; 2·0; Mon.	Hivarkhed; ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs, tl.
Amravati; 40·0	Hivarkhed; 2·0; Mon.	.. ..	W;w	Sl (pr).
.. ..	. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Tukaithad; 8·0	Local; .. Wed.	Dhavati; 4·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Amravati; 8·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; mq.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	W.	
Bhujavada; 1·4	Lokhapuya; 1·0; Mon.	Local; ..	w;w; rv.	2 Sl (pr); Cs; tl; mq; 2 dg.
Local; ..	Local; .. Wed.	.. 2·0	w.	Sl (pr); Cs; Ganapati Fr. Bdp. Sud. 9; 3 tl; mq; lib.
Badnera; 10·0	Dhanora Phasi; 2·0; Thu.	.. 5·0	w;rv.	tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Ṭākaḷī Kanaḍā—Amt.—टाकळी कनडा.	S; 18·0	1·4; 289; 60; 108	Dhanora Phasi; 10·0
Ṭākarakheḍā—Acr.—टाकरखेडा	E; 13·0	2·8; 674; 145; 347	Aseganv; 0·4
Ṭākarakheḍā—Amt.—टाकरखेडा	N; 14·0	4·0; 2642; 558; 1055	Local; ..
Ṭākarakheḍā Kāvarc—Dyr.—टाकरखेडा कावरे.	W; 14·0	2·2; 418; 82; 179	Chendakapur; 0·4
Ṭākarakheḍā Mcr —Dyr.—टाकरखेडा मोरे.	N; 18·0	4·3; 1828; 391; 770	Local; ..
Talāī—Mlg.—तलाई	N; 2·0	2·5; 383; 79; 194	Dharni; 1·0
Taḷaṇī—Acr.—तळणी	E; 11·0	1·8; 573; 112; 314	Local; ..
Trḷaṇī—Cdr.—तळणी	E; 17·0	3·4; 1002; 207; 477	Nimbhora Bodakha; 1·0
Taḷaṇī—Mai.—तळणी	S; 6·0	4·4; 460; 100; 236	Pimpalkhuta; 2·0
Taḷavel—Acr.—तळवेल	E; 16·0	4·6; 2396; 527; 986	Local; ..
Taḷegāṅv—Mai.—तळेगांव	SW; 18·0	1·4; 556; 137; 320	Porgavhan; 3·0
Taḷegāṅv Dasāsar—Cdr.—तळेगांव दसासर.	NE; 13·0	11·9; 6306; 1401; 2648	Local; ..
Taḷegāṅv Mohanā—Acr.—तळेगांव मोहना.	E; 8·0	1·7; 947; 195; 378	Local; ..
Taḷegāṅv Ṭhākūr—Cdr.—तळेगांव ठाकूर.	N; 27·0	4·3; 3537; 810; 1517	Local; ..
Tāmasavāḍī—Acr.—तामसवाडी	E; 13·0	0·8; 237; 48; 116	Talani; 1·0
Tāmasavāḍī—Dyr.—तामसवाडी	NW; 6·0	2·0; 238; 59; 118	Itaki; 0·4
Tārakheḍā (Urban Area)—Amt.—तारखेडा (नागरी विभाग)	.. ..	Included in Urban Area I.	.. ..
Tārakheḍā (Rural Area)—Amt.—तारखेडा (ग्रामीण विभाग).	W; 5·0	1·3; 19; 4, 7	Amravati; 1·0
Taroḍā—Cdr.—तरोडा	NE; 17·0	0·9; 261; 55; 135	Murtijapur; 0·4
Taroḍā—Cdr.—तरोडा	W; 2·0	1·7; 12; 2, 6	Manjarkhed; 3·0
Taroḍā—Cdr.—तरोडा	E; 9·0	3·1; 676; 176; 316	Ashok Nagar; 2·0

Railway Station ; Distance.		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.		Motor Stand ; Distance.		Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)		(6)		(7)		(8)	(9)
Badnera;	13·0	Dhanora Phasi;	1·0; Thu.	..	6·0	W.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; mq.
Achalpur;	14·0	Aseganv;	0·4; Wed.	Aseganv;	0·2	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; ch; lib.
Amravati;	14·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Local;	..	w;w.	6 Sl (3 pr, 2 m, h); Cs;6 tl; 2 mq; gym; 3 lib; 2 dp.
Kokarda;	12·0	Chendakapur;	0·4; Wed.	..	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; m; dh.
Anjanganv;	2·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	2·0	w;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; m; ch; 2 lib; 5 dp.
Tukaithad;	21·0	Dharni;	1·0; Fri.	Dharni;	2·0	w.	tl.
Achalpur;	12·0	Aseganv;	2·0; Wed.	..	1·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl.
Local;	..	Dhamanganv;	8·0; Sun.	Dhamanganv;	6·0	W.	Sl (pr): Cs; 2 tl.
Amravati;	3·0	Morshi;	3·0; Tue.	..	0·6	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; dh; 2 dg; gym; ch; dp.
Amravati;	19·0	Local;	.. Fri.	..	1·6	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, h); 2 Cs; Ram Fr. Ct Sud. 9; Vitthal Fr. Asd. Sud. 11, Kt. Sud. 11; 10 tl; m, dh; gym; ch; lib; 2 dp.
Amravati;	26·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Stage;	..	w;w;t.	tl.
Dhamanganv;	12·0	Local;	.. Mon.	Local;	..	w;rv.	4 Sl (2 pr, m, h); 4 Cs; Sankrant Fr. Ps. 8 tl; 3 mq; 2 dg; gym; ch; lib; 4 dp.
Achalpur;	8·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; mq.
Amravati;	24·0	Shendurjana;	2·0; Tue.	..	2·0	W.	3 Sl (2 m, h); 2 Cs; 14 tl; 3 m; dg; dh; gym; lib; dp; Cch.
Achalpur;	12·0	Rajana;	2·0; Fri.	Talani;	1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Leheganv;	2·4	Banosa;	6·0; Thu.	..	4·0	W;w.	Cs (gr); tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Amravati;	1·3	Amravati;	1·3; Wed; Sun.	Local;	..	W; pl.	6 Sl (4 pr, m. h); Cs; 2 tl. 4 mq. 2 dg; 3 dh; 3 gym; lib; 2 dp.
Chandur;	16·0	Murtijapur;	0·½; Fri.	Kurha;	6·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Chandur;	4·0	Chandur;	2·0; Sun.	Chandur;	2·0	W	tl.
Dhamanganv;	5·0	Dattapur;	5·0; Sun.	..	2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Taroḍā—Dyr.—तरोडा	N; 12·0	1·2; 397; 82; 159	Local; ..
Taroḍā—Msi—तरोडा	NW; 4·0	1·5; 1022; 235; 552	Local; ..
Taroḍā—Msi—तरोडा	.. ..	0·8; 173; 43; 109	Morshi; 4·0
Taroḍī—Msi—तरोडी	E; 35·0	1·7; 6; 1; 2	Pusla; 2·0
Tātarā—Mlg.—तातरा	S; 11·0	1·5; 226; 39; 82	Dharni; 13·0
Tatār pūr—Amt.—ततारपूर	W; 6·0	0·7; 56; 14; 28	Valganv; 4·0
Ṭavalār—Acr.—टवलार	N; 10·0	3·5; 1026; 242; 560	Parsapur; 1·0
Telakhār—Mlg.—तेलखार	.. ..	1·8; 458; 91; 232	Gaulkheda; 4·0
Telakheḍ—Dyr.—तेलखेड	NW; 10·0	1·0; 211; 43; 104	Umri Mamdabad; 1·4
Ṭembalī—Mlg.—टेंबली	S; 3·0	2·7; 367; 64; 223	.. ..
Ṭembhā—Amt.—टेंभा	N; 10·0	1·9; 421; 99; 225	Salora Kh; 5·0
Ṭembharun Soṇḍā—Mlg—टेंभरुन सोंडा	.. ..	1·7; 532; 113; 213	Chikhaldara; 14·0
Ṭembhī—Msi.—टेंभी	W; 5·0	0·4; 49; 10; 25	Khanapur; 2·0
Ṭembhūrkheḍā—Msi.—टेंभूरखेडा	E; 24·0	5·5; 2182; 504, 1094	Local; ..
Ṭembhūrṇī- Cdr.—टेंभूर्णी	N; 3·4	3·1; 474; 112; 209	Chandur; 4·0
Ṭhāṇī—Msi—ठाणी	E; 4·0	1·3; 169; 45; 94	Morshi; 4·0
Thilorī—Dyr.—थिलोरी	E; 4·0	10·5; 2047; 430; 1007	Local; ..
Thūgānv—Acr.—थुगांव	E; 18·0	2·8; 1120; 201; 452	Pimpri; 1·0
Thūgānv—Amt.—थूगांव	NW; 8·0	5·5; 3782; 821; 1336	Local; ..
Thūgānv—Amt.—थूगांव	SE; 17·0	1·3; 354; 96; 168	Nandura Bk.; 2·0
Thugānv—Cdr—थुगांव	NW; 5·0	1·5; 175; 50; 102	Chandur; 5·0
Ṭhuṇī—Msi.—ठुणी	E; 4·0	1·6; 364; 100; 184	Morshi; 4·0
Ṭimaṭālā—Amt.—टिमटाला	N; 10·0	1·7; 271; 56; 123	Anjanganv Bari; 2·0
Ṭiṅgarīyā—Mlg.—टिंगरीया	W; 2·0	2·5; 289; 55; 185	Dharni; 1·2
Ṭiṭāmbā—Mlg.—टिटांबा	S; 11·0	3·0; 615; 98; 274	Dharni; 10·0
Ṭiṭavā—Cdr—टिटवा	S; 11·0	1·8; 559; 137; 330	Javala; 2·0
Tigharā—Amt.—तिघरा	S; 26·4	1·4; 198; 44; 115	Vadhona Ramnath; 2·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Kokarda;	6·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Daryapur;	12·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Datta Fr. Mrg Sud. 15; 2 tl; lib.
Amravati;	35·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Morshi;	4·0	w;w.	2 tl.
Amravati;	4·0	Morshi;	4·0; Tue.	..	..	..	
Pandurana;	16·0	Pusala;	2·0 Tue.	Pusala;	2·0	W.	
Dhulghat;	25·0	Baru;	5·0; Mon.	Dharni;	11·0	W.	
Amravati;	6·0	Valganv;	4·0; Thu.	..	3·0	rv.	tl.
Pathrot;	5·0	..	.. ..	Parsapur;	1·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; Cs (c); 2 tl; mq; gym; lib.
Elichpur,	14·0	Gaulkheda;	4·0; Tue.	..	..	..	
Leheganv;	5·0	Umri Mamdabad;	1·4; Sat.	Yewda;	2·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 2 tl.
..	..	..	.. .	Dharni;	3·0	w.	
Amaravati;	10·0	Nandganv Peth;	6·0; Fri.	Nandganv;	5·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m.
Achalpur;	13·0	Local;	.. Sat.	..	..	..	
Amravati;	..	Morshi;	5·0; Tue.	..	..	W.	
Pandurana;	25·0	Varud;	2·0; Wed.	Varud;	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); dp.
Chandur;	4·0	Chandur;	4·0, Sun.	..	..	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl.
Amravati;	40·0	Morshi;	4·0; Tue.	Morshi;	4·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
Banosa;	4·0	Daryapur;	4·0; Thu.	..	2·0	w;t.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); 3 Cs (2 c, mp); 12 tl; ch; lib; dp.
Achalpur;	13·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	2·0	w;rv.	3 Sl (pr); 3 tl; mq.
..	..	Thuganvpurna;	1·0; Fri.	Thuganvpurna;	1·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; m.
Amravati;	8·0	Nandganv Peth;	5·0; Fri.	..	1·0	w;w; rv.	5 Sl (2 pr, 2 m, h); 5 Cs; 16 tl; 4 mq; gym; ch; 3 lib; 5 dp.
Chandur;	5·0	Chandur;	5·0; Sun.	..	5·0	W.	tl
Amravati;	40·0	Morshi;	4·0; Tue.	Morshi;	4·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl; ch.
Local;	..	Anjanganv;	2·0; Thu.	Januna;	2·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Tukaithad;	15·0	Dharni;	1·2, Fri.	Dharni;	2·0	w.	2 tl.
Tukaithad;	20·0	Dharni;	10·0; Fri.	Dharni;	11·0	w;n.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur;	11·0	Ghuikhed;	1·0; Wed.	Ghuikhed;	1·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (gr); 6 tl.
Kurum;	12·0	Vadhona Ramnath;	2·0; Mon.	.	..	W.	tl; 2 dg.

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop.; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Tivarā—Cdr.—तिवरा ..	SE; 8·0	3·5; 1017; 255; 507	Local; ..
Tivasā—Cdr.—तिवसा ..	N; 23·0	13·2; 4144; 946; 1495	Local; ..
Tivasā—Msi.—तिवसा ..	N; 26·0	2·5; 887; 216; 523	Varud; 4·0
Ṭolī—Mlg.—टोली ..	S; 6·0	1·4; 170; 26; 97	.. ..
Toṇḍagāṅv—Acr.—तोंडगांव ..	E; 5·0	4·5; 1172; 240; 491	Kavatha Bk.; 2·0
Toṅgalābād—Acr.—तोंगलाबाद ..	S; 18·0	1·0; 143; 29; 57	Savalapur; ..
Ṭoṅgalābād—Cdr.—टोंगलाबाद ..	S; 10·0	2·6; 502; 111; 285	Dhanora Mogal; 2·0
Ṭoṅgalābād—Dyr.—टोंगलाबाद ..	S; 6·0	1·1; 750; 198; 436	Dhamodi; 1·0
Toṅgalāpūr—Acr.—तोंगलापूर ..	E; 11·0	1·4; 109; 26; 53	Kural; 1·0
Toranavāḍī—Mlg.—तोरनवाडी ..	.. ..	2·6; 455; 87; 269	Katkumbha; 2·0
Trimalapūr—Msi.—त्रिमलपूर ..	SE; 20·0	0·5; 56; 15; 24	Belora; ..
Tukāpūr—Amt.—तुकापूर ..	N; 12·4	0·6; 10; 3; 5	Mahuli; 0·4
Tuḷajāpūr—Acr.—तुळजापूर ..	SW; 7·0	0·6; 202; 43; 85	Kushta Bk.; 1·0
Tuḷajāpūr—Amt.—तुळजापूर ..	W; 8·0	1·2; 34; 9; 21	Khar Taleganv; 3·0
Tuḷajāpūr—Cdr.—तुळजापूर ..	SE; 23·0	0·7; 265; 62; 153	Chinchpur; 2·0
Tuḷajāpūr—Cdr.—तुळजापूर ..	SE; 3·0	1·7; 265; 49; 109	Shirajganv Korde; ..
Tuḷajāpūr—Msi.—तुळजापूर ..	S; 11·0	1·3; 81; 18; 91	Rajurvadi; 2·0
Tuḷajāpūr Gaḍhī—Acr.—तुळजापूर गढी. ..	E; 10·0	0·8; 805; 166; 359	Local; ..
Turkheḍā—Dyr.—तुरखेडा ..	NW; 25·0	1·2; 851; 182; 445	Karla; 2·0
Udakheḍ—Msi.—उदखेड ..	W; 8·4	3·7; 1357; 325; 600	Porgavhan; 2·0
Udāpūr—Amt.—उदापूर ..	NW; 16·0	1·5; 182; 43; 83	Dhamori; 2·0
Udāpūr—Msi.—उदापूर ..	E; 28·0	1·2; 747; 169; 394	Chandas; 2·0
Ukali—Amt.—उकळी ..	N; 9·0	1·0; 30; 11; 16	Nandganv Peth; 3·0
Ukhupāṭī—Mlg.—उखुपाटी ..	E; 5·0	1·2; 220; 37; 116	Dharni; 4·0
Umarakheḍ—Cdr.—उमरखेड ..	NE; 29·0	1·9; 220; 46; 110	Varkhed; 1·0
Umarakheḍ—Msi.—उमरखेड ..	NE; 9·0	1·1; 194; 49; 109	Jamganv; 3·0
Umarāpūr—Amt.—उमरापूर ..	SE; 16·0	1·5; 454; 91; 212	Nirul; 2·0
Umarapūr—Cdr.—उमरपूर ..	NE; 10·0	1·8; 32; 7; 20	Jalka Jagtap; 2·0
Umaraṭek—Amt.—उमरटेक ..	SE; 18·0	0·7; 139; 26; 61	Thuganv; 0·4

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Dipori;	2·0	Dhamanganv;	4·0; Sun.	..	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Khandoba Fr. Mg. Vad. 13; 4 tl; lib.
Arvi;	17·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	w;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); 2 Cs; 11 tl; mq; 2 dh; 2 gym; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Mulatai;	23·0	Shendurjana;	1·4; Fri.	Local;	.	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; dg; lib; dp.
..	..	..	.. ..	Dharni;	6·0	rv.	
Paratvada;	4·0	Paratvada;	4·0; Thu.	..		w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; mq.
Achalpur;	17·0	Savalapur;	.. Sun.	Thuganv;	2·0	w;w.	tl.
Chandur;	10·0	Rajura;	1·0; Tue.	Nandganv Khandeshvar;	5·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Banosa;	5·0	Banosa;	5·0; Thu.	Daryapur;	6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c).
Achalpur;	13·0	Chandur Bazar;	5·0; Sun	Kural;	1·0	w;rv.	tl.
Achalpur;	30·0	Katkumbha;	2·0; Thu.	..	..	..	..
Amravati;	20·0	Belora;	.. Fri.	..	4·0	w.	Included in Belora village.
Amravati;	12·4	Mahul;	0·4; Mon.	Mahuli;	..	w.	tl
Kushta Bk.;	0·6	Chamak Bk.;	1·4; Fri.	Achalpur;	7·0	W,w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Amravati;	12·0	Khar Taleganv;	3·0; Tue.	..	2·0	W.	
Dhamanganv;	11·0	Chinchpur;	.. Sat.	..	5·0	rv.	Cs; 2 tl; gym.
Chandur;	3·0	Chandur;	3·0; Sun.	..	3·0	w;n.	Cs; 2 tl.
Amravati;	33·0	Rajurvadi;	2·0; Sat.	Rajurvadi;	3·0	w;w.	
Achalpur;	12·0	Local;	.. Tue.	Taleganv;	2·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 5 tl; 2 dp.
Anjanganv;	9·0	Karla;	2·0; Tue.	..	2·0	w;w;	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m.
Amravati;	40·0	Local;	.. ..	Local;	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Hanuman Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; 5 tl; m; mq; dh; ch; dp.
Amravati;	16·0	Dhamori;	2·0; Sun.	..	2·0	w.	tl; mq.
Pandurana;	19·0	Rajura;	4·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl; dp.
Amravati;	11·0	Nandganv Peth;	3·0; Fri.	Nandganv Peth;	2·0	rv.	
Tukaithad;	14·0	Dharni;	4·0; Fri.	Dharni;	5·0	w;rv.	
Arvi;	..	Varkhed;	1·0; Mon.	..	3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr) tl.
Pandurana;	36·0	Hivarkhed;	3·0; Mon.	..	..	w;rv.	Sl (pr).
Amravati;	18·0	Nirul;	2·0; Tue.	Dhamori;	6·0	w.	Sl (pr); Devi Utsav Srn. Vad. 8; 2 tl.
Dhamanganv;	8·0	Dhamanganv;	8·0; Sun.	..	5·0	W.	tl.
Amravati;	17·0	Thuganv;	4·0; Fri.	..	1·4	w;rv.	tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)
Umarī Itabārapūr—Dyr.— उमरी इतबारपूर.	SE; 10·0	2·6; 1075; 252; 537	Umri Mamdabad. 0·3
Umarī Kuraṇakheḍ—Dyr.— .. उमरी कुरणखेड.	W; 8·0	1·1; 143; 30; 63	Arala; 2·0
Umarī Mamadābād—Dyr.— .. उमरी ममदाबाद.	NW; 10·0	2·3; 939; 208; 407	Local; ..
Undīrakheḍ—Amt.—उंदीरखेड ..	S; 26·0	0·9; 12; 4; 7	Pimpalganv Nipani; 3·0
Uparāī—Dyr.—उपराई ..	E; 18·0	2·9; 778; 168; 353	Markanda; 1·0
Upāt Kheḍā—Acr.—उपात खेडा..	W; 10·0	2·6; 235; 49; 141	Parsapur; 2·0
Urāḍ—Msi.—उराड ..	E; 31·0	5·3; 239; 45; 142	Pusala; 2·0
Usaḷagavhāṇ—Cdr.—उसळगव्हाण	E; 20·0	2·5; 742; 183; 397	Jalka Patache; 2·0
Utakheḍ—Amt.—उतखेड ..	SE; 14·0	5·6; 259; 68; 152	Paradi; 0·4
Utāvaḷī—Mlg.—उतावळी ..	N; 5·0	1·2; 197; 43; 113	Bodfarm; 1·0
Uttamasarā—Amt.—उत्तमसरा ..	SW; 10·0	2·8; 1213; 276; 503	Local; ..
Vaḍad—Amt.—वडद ..	SE; 6·0	2·9; 37; 9; 20	Badnera; 3·0
Vaḍagāṅv—Amt.—वडगांव ..	NE; 6·0	1·9; 1093; 243; 525	Tapovan; 1·4
Vaḍagāṅv—Amt.—वडगांव ..	SE; 16·0	2·0; 306; 73; 172	Pardi; 2·0
Vaḍagāṅv Bājadī—Cdr.—वडगांव बाजदी.	E; 6·0	3·0; 293; 76; 124	Tivara; 2·0
Vaḍagāṅv Bhaṭṭa—Cdr.—वडगांव भट्ट.	SE; 6·0	0·8; 34; 8; 20	Tivara; 2·0
Vaḍagāṅv Kh.—Acr.—वडगांव खु.	SE; 14·0	1·3; 29; 8; 22	Asadpur; 1·0
Vaḍagāṅv Phattepūr—Acr.— .. वडगांव फत्तेपूर.	W; 6·4	6·5; 944; 231; 459	Local; ..
Vaḍagāṅv Rājadī—Cdr — .. वडगांव राजदी.	E; ..	2·0; 777; 183; 350	Tivara; 2·0
Vaḍāḷā—Acr.—वडाळा ..	E; 16·0	0·5; 247; 58; 133	Chandur Bazar; 3·0
Vaḍālā—Amt.—वडाला ..	NW; 21·0	1·1; 81; 21; 54	Nanded Bk.; 1·0
Vaḍāḷā—Amt.—वडाळा ..	S; 22·0	1·9; 241; 54; 118	Dhanora Gurav; 3·0
Vaḍāḷā—Msi.—वडाळा ..	E; 25·0	2·0; 658; 141; 379	Rajura; 2·0
Vaḍāḷī—Amt.—वडाळी ..	.. ..	Included in Urban Area I	.. ..
Vaḍāḷī (Rural Area)—Amt.— .. वडाळी (ग्रामीण विभाग).	E; 3·0	6·9; 60; 20; 22	Local; ..
Vaḍāḷī—Dyr.—वडाळी ..	N; 20·0	0·6; 342; 80; 204	Anjanganv; 2·0
Vaḍaner Bhujaṅg—Acr.—वडनेर भुजंग.	SW; 18·0	2·6; 453; 99; 186	Kolha; 3·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Leheganv;	5·0	Umri Mamdabad;	0·3; Sat.	Yewda;	4·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 3 tl; mq.
Banosa;	8·0	Banosa;	8·0; Thu.	Arala;	4·0	w;n.	tl.
Kokarda;	5·0	Local;	.. Sat.	Yewda;	2·4	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 2 tl; m.
Badnera;	20·0	Vadhona Ramnath;	3·0; Mon.	..	2·0	w.	tl.
Kokarda;	15·0	Local;	.. Thu.	..	6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; mq; 2 dg.
Achalpur;	9·0	Parsapur;	2·0; Tue.	Parsapur;	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); tl; m.
Pandurana;	16·0	Pusala;	2·0; Tue.	Pusala;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Dhamanganv;	7·0	Jalka Patache;	2·0; Tue.	..	2·0	w	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Malkhed;	2·0	Paradi;	0·4; Sun.	Badnera;	8·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Tukaithad;	14·0	Dharni;	4·0; Fri.	..	2·0	rv.	Cs; tl.
Takali;	1·4	Ganori;	3·0; Tue.	..	6·0	w;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 2 tl; dp.
Badnera;	3·0	Badnera;	3·0; Mon.	Badnera;	2·0	W.	tl.
Amravati;	4·0	Amravati;	4·0; Sun.	Amravati;	6·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Malkhed;	4·0	Malkhed;	4·0; Tue.	..	10·0	W.	Sl (pr); 2 tl; dg.
Dipori;	2·0	Dhamanganv;	5·0; Sun.	..	6·0	W;w.	3 tl.
Dipori;	3·0	Dhamanganv;	5·0; Sun.	..	1·4	w.	tl.
Kushta Bk;	9·0	Asadpur;	1·0; Thu.	..	2·0	W;w.	tl, m.
Achalpur;	6·0	Local;	.. Sun.	Local;	.	W;w.	2 Sl (pr m); 4 cs (2 c, mp, fmg); 3 tl; m; 2 dp.
Dipori;	2·0	Chandur;	5·0; Sun.	..	6·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; gym; lib.
Achalpur;	17·0	Chandur;	2·4; Sun	..	0·4	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Daryapur;	14·0	Nandad Bk;	1·0; Sun.	..	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl; m
Badnera;	15·0	Hivara;	7·0; Sun.	Hivara;	2·0	W.	Sl (pr).
Pandurana;	24·0	Rajura;	3·0; Thu.	Rajura;	3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs; 2 tl.
..	..	..	.. ..	..	..	..	
Amravati;	1·6	Amravati;	.. Sun.	..	..	..	9 Sl (6 pr; m, h, clg); Cs; 2 tl; mq; dg; ch; dp.
Anjanganv;	2·0	Anjanganv ;	2·0; Mon.	Anjanganv;	2·0	W;w	tl.
Pathrot;	3·0	..	2·0; Sun.	Pathrot;	6·0	W;rv	Sl (pr); Cs (c); Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. Pournima; 12tl; 2 dp

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Vaḍaner Gaṅgāī—Dyr;—वडनेर गंगाई.	W;	14·0	14·1;	3967;	863;	1544	Local;	..
Vaḍāpāṭī—Mlg.—वडापाटी ..	..	..	0·8;	131;	23;	83	..	..
Vāḍegānv—Msi.—वाडेगांव ..	SE;	26·0	1·9;	410;	83;	231	Rajura;	2·0
Vāḍhoṇā—Acr.—वाढोणा ..	S;	13·0	1·0;	172;	31;	82	Donoda;	1·0
Vāḍhoṇā—Cdr.—वाढोणा .	SE:	12·0	4·1;	841;	186;	379	Local;	..
Vāḍhoṇā—Cdr.—वाढोणा ..	N;	7·0	2·9;	93;	21;	48	Amla;	2·0
Vāḍhoṇā Rāmnāth—Amt.—वाढोणा रामनाथ. ..	S;	28·0	5·3;	1748;	366;	785	Local;	..
Vaḍūrā—Acr.—वडूरा ..	N;	2·4	3·2;	5;	4;	1	Achalpur Camp;	0·4
Vaḍūrā—Acr.—वडूरा .	E;	20·0	2·7;	941;	224;	402	Shirala;	2·0
Vaḍūrā—Amt.—वडूरा ..	NE;	6·0	0·8;	1;	1;	..	..	..
Vaḍūrā—Amt.—वडूरा ..	S:	18·0	4·2;	877;	154;	431	Local;	..
Vaḍurā—Dyr.—वडुरा ..	NE;	19·0	2·7;	549;	118;	279	Vaki-Raipur;	0·4
Vāgaḍoho—Acr.—वागडोहो ..	W;	16·0	1·7;	138;	32;	73	Pathrot;	3·0
Vaghāḷ—Msi.—वघाळ ..	E;	28·0	3·4;	600;	129;	322	Gadeganv;	1·0
Vāgholī—Amt.—वाघोली ..	.	..	1·0;	2;	1;	1	..	..
Vāgholī—Amt.—वाघोली ..	N;	14·0	3·8;	3?4,	84;	195	Mahuli Jagir;	2·0
Vāgholī—Amt.—वाघोली ..	S;	18·0	1·0;	263;	64;	130	Dhanora Gurav;	2·0
Vāgholī—Cdr.—वाघोली ..	E;	14·0	4·8;	582;	134;	321	Dhamanganv;	3·0
Vāgholī—Msi.—वाघोली ..	SW;	12·0	3·1;	492;	120;	140	Leheganv;	2·0
Vāghoṇḍā—Cdr.—वाघोंडा .	S:	14·0	3·0;	759;	182;	411	Sulatanpur;	2·0
Vāī—Cdr.—वाई ..	SE;	4·0	1·2;	242;	48;	112	Chandur;	6·0
Vāī—Cdr.—वाई ..	S;	11·0	2·0;	643;	163;	390	Phuganv;	2·0
Vāī Bk.—Msi.—वाई बु. ..	N;	25·0	1·2;	64;	22;	41	Shendurjana;	2·0
Vāī Kh.—Msi.—वाई खु. ..	N;	35·0	4·9;	279;	68;	160	Satnur;	2·0
Vajjar—Acr.—वज्जर ..	N;	6·4	2·0;	501;	94;	264	Paratvada;	5·0
Vakanāth—Cdr.—वकनाथ ..	E;	16·0	3·0;	877;	185;	414	Chincholi;	3·0
Vākapūr—Amt.—वाकपूर ..	SE;	16·0	0·9;	47;	11;	7	Manjari Mhasla;	2·0

Railway Station ; Distance. (5)	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day. (6)	Motor Stand ; Distance. (7)	Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Akot; 10.0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	w;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs (c); Zageshvar Maharaj Fr. Ct. Sud. 11; 8 tl; m; 2 mq; 2 dg; dh; gym; lib; 3 dp (vet).
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Pandurana; 20·0	Rajura; 2·0; Thu.	.. ..	w;w.	Sl (pr); tl; dg.
Achalpur; 17·0	Donoda; 1·0; Wed.	.. 3·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr).
Dhamanganv; 2·0	Dhamanganv; 2·0; Sun.	.. 2·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 4 tl; lib.
Chandur; 8·0	Amla; 2·0; Wed.	.. 0·3	W.	tl.
Badnera; 24·0	Local; .. Mon	Local; ..	w;w.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; Ramnath Swami Fr. Vsk. Sud 8; 5 tl; m; dg; lib; dp.
Achalpur; 2·0	Achalpur Camp; 1·0; Thu.	.. 1·4	w.	
Amravati; 17·0	Shirala, 2·0; Wed.	.. 0·4	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. 6·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m).
Badnera; 18·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 2·0	w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 3 tl; m; mq; dg.
Kokarda, 12·0	Vaki-Raipur; 0·4; Sat.	.. 8·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); pvt; Cs; 3 tl.
Pathrot; 3·0	Pathrot; 3·0; Fri.	Pathrot; 4·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); tl; ch
Pandurana; 30·0	Rajura; .. 4·0; Thu	.. ..	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; Mahashivaratra Fr. Mg. Sud. 10; 4 tl; mq, 2 dg.
. ..	..	.. .	rv.	
Amravati; 14·0	Mahuli Jagir; 2·0; Mon.	Local; 0·3	w	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Badnera; 10·0	Mahuli Chor; 3·0; Tue.	Dhanora Gurav; 1·0	W;n	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Dhamanganv; 3·0	Dhamanganv; 3·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs, tl.
Amravati; 26·0	Shirkhed; 2·0; Fri.	.. .	w;w.	Sl (pr, pvt); Cs (c); 4 tl; lib.
Chandur; 15·0	Local; .. Fri.	Shivani Rasulapur; 4·4	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; m; 2 gym; ch.
Dipori; 0·2	Chandur; 6·0; Sun.	.. 6·0	W.	Cs; tl.
Chandur; 11·0	Nandganv Khandeshvar; 4·0; Sat.	Nandganv Khandeshvar; 5·0	W;w.	Sl (pr), 2 tl.
Multai; 21·0	Malakapur; 2·0; Fri.	.. ..	w;w.	
Pandurana; 12·0	Shendurjana; 5·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	w, w	Sl (pr); 2 Cs, 2 tl
Achalpur; 6·0	Paratvada; 5·0; Thu.	.. 1·0	w.	Sl (pr); tl
Pulganv; 3·0	Pulganv; 3·0; Mon.	.. ..	w;w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Malkhed; 4·0	Manjari Mhasla; 2·0; Wed.	. 6·0	w.	tl; dp.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Vākī—Amt.—वाकी ..	SE;	16·0	1·7; 460; 96; 235	Local;	..
Valrgānv—Amt.—वलगांव ..	N,	6·0	8·9; 7398; 1643; 2598	Local;	..
Vāḷakī—Amt.—वाळकी ..	N;	7·0	0·9; 220; 50; 106	Rahatganv;	3·0
Vālemīkapūr—Acr.—वालमीकपूर	S;	11·0	2·9; 170; 39; 97	Anjanganv;	6·0
Valaṇī Bk.—Acr.—वलणी बु. ..	W;	9·0	0·8; 38; 12; 22	Tavalar;	1·4
Valaṇī Kh.—Acr.—वलणी खु. ..	W;	9·0	1·1; 2; 2; 2	..	..
Vanārsī—Amt.—वनार्सी ..	W;	3·0	4·6; 611; 136; 291	Sukali;	2·0
Vaṇḍalī—Amt.—वडली ..	NW;	13·0	1·4; 350; 81; 158	Vavganv;	3·0
Vaṇḍalī—Cdr.—वडली ..	NE;	17·0	1·5; 66; 18; 36	Murtijapur;	2·0
Vaṇḍalī—Msi.—वंडली ..	E;	28·0	2·5; 526; 86; 267	Ambada;	0·6
Vaṇī—Acr.—वणी ..	NE;	21·0	1·6; 1206; 255; 554	Local;	..
Vaṇī—Cdr.—वणी ..	SE;	2·0	1·7; 317; 65; 170	Satarganv;	2·0
Vanojā—Dyr.—वनोजा ..	SE;	14 0	2·7; 731; 158; 354	Kumbharganv;	2·0
Varakheḍ—Cdr.—वरखेड ..	NE;	..	5·4; 1992; 465; 881	Local;	..
Varavāḍ—Amt.—वरवाड ..	N;	6·0	0·5; 6; 2; 3	Valganv;	0·3
Vardhī—Amt.—वर्धी ..	N;	20·0	1·1; 291; 69; 170	Brahmanvada Govindpur;	1·0
Varhā—Cdr.—वऱ्हा ..	N;	28·0	7·5; 3952; 778; 1818	Local;	.
Varhā—Msi.—वऱ्हा ..	W;	7·6	1·2; 407; 102; 250	Porgavhan;	4·0
Varuḍ—Cdr.—वरुड ..	N,	28·0	2·4; 441; 90; 201	Satarganv;	2·0
Varuḍ (Urban Area)—Msi.—वरुड (नागरी विभाग).	E;	22·0	6·33; 15888; 3310; 4719	Local;	.
Varuḍ (Rural Area)—Msi;—वरुड (ग्रामीण विभाग).	..	..	6·3; 376; 133; 258;	..	..
Varuḍ Bk.—Dyr.—वरुड बु. ..	W;	12·0	3·6; 1576; 351; 813	Local;	..
Varuḍ Bāgājī—Cdr.—वरुड बागाजी	NE;	2·0	1·5; 489; 122; 212	Mangrul Dastagir;	3·0
Varuḍ Kh.—Dyr.—वरुड खु. ..	NW;	14·0	1·1; 287; 66; 114	Chincholi Bk;	2·0
Varuḍā—Amt.—वरुडा ..	S;	7·0	0·9; 511; 103; 184	Badnera;	1·0
Vāruḷī—Acr.—वारुळी ..	NE;	10·0	2·4; 112; 26; 50	Ghatladaki;	2·0
Vasāḍ—Cdr.—वसाड ..	E;	16·0	4·1; 555; 139; 323	Kavali;	1·0
Vāsanī Bk.—Acr.—वासनी बु. ..	S;	10·0	1·6; 689; 152; 350	Borganv Peth;	1·0
Vāsanī Kh.—Acr.—वासनी खु. ..	S;	8·0	1·9; 641; 138; 308	Borganv Dori;	1·0

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Amravati; 20·0	Local; .. Sat.	Dhanori; 6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati; 6·0	Local; .. Thu.	Local; ..	w;rv.	4 Sl (3 pr, h); pyt; Cs; 9 tl; 2 mq; dh; 3 gym; lib; 7 dp.
Amravati; 6·0	Nandganv; 3·0; Fri.	Vareganv; 1·0	w.	tl.
Pathrot; 4·0	Pathrot; 1·0; Fri.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Pathrot; 2·4	Parasapur; 3·0; ..	Parasapur; 3·0	w.	tl.
Pathrot; 2·4	Parasapur; 3·0; ..	Parasapur; 3·0	w.	tl.
Amravati; 5·0	Amravati; 5·0; Sun.	Amravati; 3·0	W.	2 Sl (pr; m); tl.
Amravati; 13·0	Khar Taleganv; 2·0; Tue.	Dhanori; 3·0	..	Sl (pr); tl.
Arvi; 7·0	Murtijapur; 2·0; Fri.	.. 5·0	W.	tl.
Pandurana; 30·0	Rajura; 4·0; Thu.	.. ..	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl; 2 dg.
Achalpur; 22·0	Local; .. Tue.	.. 2·0	W;w	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Chandur; 28·0	Shendurjana; 6·0; Tue.	.. 2·0	W.	2 Sl (pr, m); tl; 3 m.
Kokarda; 6·0	Chincholi Bk; 2·0; Wed.	Yewada; 6·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 4 tl.
Arvi, 10·0	Local; .. Mon.	.. 2·0	W;rv.	2 Sl (pr, h); Cs; RamNavami Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 7 tl; gym; lib.
Amravati; 6·0	Valganv; 0·3; Thu.	Valganv; 0·4	w.	tl.
Amravati, 20·0	Brahmanvada Govindpur; 1·0; Sun.	Karajganv; 2·0	W;w	Sl (pr), tl; ch.
Chandur; 16·0	Local; .. Mon.	Shendurjana, 3·0	w;w.	2 Sl (pr, h), Cs; 8 tl; 2 m; mq; dg; ch; 2 lib; 2 dp.
Amravati; 38·0	Udakhed; 1·0; Sat.	.. 0·2	W;w.	Sl (pr); tl.
Chandur; 26·0	Rajurvadi; 2·0; Sat	.. 26·0	W	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Pandurana; 20·0	Local; .. Wed.	Local; ..	W;w.	7 Sl (4 pr, 2 h, clg); 3 Cs; 4 tl, 2 m; 2 mq; dg; dh; gym; ch; lib; dp.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Banosa; 12·0	Local; .. Tue	Local; 1·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 3 tl; dp.
Pargothan; 1·0	Dhanodi; 1·0; Fri.	.. 2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; 3 tl.
Kapus Talani; 3·0	Chincholi Bk; 2·0; Wed.	Anjanganv; 6·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 3 tl.
Badnera; 1·0	Badnera; 1·0; Mon.	Badnera; 1·0	w.	Sl (pr); Balaji Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 2 tl.
Achalpur; 30·0	Chandur Bazar; 10·0; Sun.	.. 10·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Dhamanganv; 6·0	Local; .. Fri.	.. 7·0	W.	Sl (pr); tl.
Kushta Bk.; 9·0	Local; .. Sun.	.. 3·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); 3 tl; dp.
Achalpur; 8·0	Vasani Bk; 0·2; Sun.	.. 1·1	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c), 3 tl.

Village Name. (1)	Direction ; Travelling distance. (2)		Area (Sq. ms.) ; Pop. ; Households ; Agriculturists. (3)				Post Office ; Distance. (4)	
Vastāpūr—Mlg.—वस्तापूर ..	..	..	1·0;	373;	63;	203	..	..
Vāṭapūr—Amt.—वाटपूर ..	S;	16·0	4·0;	777;	179;	423	Loni;	2·0
Vāṭhoḍā—Amt.—वाठोडा ..	W;	18·0	0·6;	3488;	740;	1268	Local;	..
Vāṭhoḍā—Cdr.—वाठोडा ..	E;	15·0	2·2;	672;	147;	384	Kavali;	2·0
Vāṭhoḍā—Msi.—वाठोडा ..	S;	10·5	2·9;	986;	223;	418	Local;	..
Vāṭhoḍā—Msi.—वाठोडा ..	E;	28·0	2·3;	1778;	401;	756	Chandas;	0·1
Vāṭhoḍā—Msi.—वाठोडा ..	SE;	22·0	1·5;	559;	130;	257	Shirala;	3·0
Vāṭhoḍā Kh.—Cdr.—वाठोडा खु.	N;	14·1	1·2;	845;	182;	307	Kavadgavhan;	1·0
Vātoṇḍā—Amt.—वातोंडा ..	SE ;	18·0	1·1;	237;	51;	108	Nirul;	..
Vāvarūḷī—Msi.—वावरूळी ..	SE;	1·4	1·4;	225;	40;	94	Mangruli;	0·3
Vāyagāṅv—Amt.—वायगांव ..	NW;	12·0	4·1;	1207;	259;	573	Local;	..
Veḍhāpūr—Msi.—वेढापूर ..	E;	34·0	1·1;	73;	20;	47	Jalakheda;	2·0
Veṇī Gaṇeśapūr—Amt.—वेणी गणेशपूर.	S;	24·0	3·8;	1627;	392;	932	Local;	..
Vicorī—Msi.—विचोरी ..	SW;	20·0	4·1;	1434;	321;	660	Local;	..
Vihīgāṅv Bk.—Dyr.—विहीगांव बु.	SE;	10	2·2;	1312;	251;	524	Local;	..
Vihīgāṅv Kh—Dyr.—विहीगांव खु.	SE;	16·0	0·9;	245;	27;	112	Local;	..
Viragavhāṇ—Cdr.—विरगव्हाण ..	S,	7·0	1·3;	160;	35;	98	Mardi,	4·0
Virapūr—Acr.—विरपूर ..	E;	2·0	0·3,	Included in Urban Area II.			..	..
Virśī—Amt.—विर्शी ..	NW;	12·0	2·8;	784;	171;	382	Vayganv;	2·0
Viruḷ—Acr.—विरूळ ..	SE;	13·0	1·8;	668;	151;	324	Aseganv;	2·0
Viruḷ—Cdr.—विरूळ ..	E;	8·0	5·5;	1603;	376;	681	Local;	..
Viṣṇorā—Msi.—विष्णोरा ..	SE;	10·0	3·3;	1001;	225;	477	Porgavhan;	1·0
Viśroḷī—Acr.—विश्रोळी ..	NE;	22·0	6·3;	997;	210;	453	Vani;	1·0
Viṭāḷā—Cdr.—विटाळा ..	E;	23·0	1·0;	907;	192;	312	Chincholi;	3·0
Viṭṭhāpūr—Amt.—विठ्ठापूर ..	S;	14·0	0·9;	60;	12;	24	Mahuli Jagir;	0·4
Yaśavantapūr—Msi.—यशवंतपूर	W;	15·0	0·5;	297;	75;	154	Rithapur;	..

Railway Station ; Distance.	Weekly Bazar ; Distance ; Bazar Day.	Motor Stand ; Distance.	Water	Institutions and other information.
(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	
Badnera; 8·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. ..	w.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Amravati; 19·0	Local; .. Mon.	. 3·0	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 8 tl; m; 2 mq; ch; lib; 2 dp; Cch.
Dhamanganv; 6·0	Dhamanganv; 6·0; Sun.	.. 3·0	W.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl.
Amravati; 30·0	Nerpingalai; 4·0, Thu.	.. 3·4	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; lib.
Narkhed; 12·0	Chandas; 0·1; Sat.	Local; ..	W;w.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 5 tl; lib.
Amravati; 18·0	Belora; 2·0; Fri.	Chandur Bazar; 4·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 2 tl; lib.
Chandur; 18·5	Shendurjana Bk; 3·0; Tue.	Local; ..	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dg; lib.
Amravati; 18·0	Thuganv; 2·0; Fri.	.. 3·0	rv.	Sl (pr); tl.
Pandurana; 29·0	Rajura; 3·0; Thu.	Jarud; 3·4	W;w.	Sl (pr).
Amravati; 12·0	Khar Taleganv; 2·0; Tue.	Local; 2·0	w;w.	Sl (m); 3 tl; lib.
Katol; 17·4	Jalakheda; 3·4; Mon; Fri.	.. ..	w;rv.	Maruti Fr. Ct. Sud. 15; tl.
Badnera; 18·0	Mangrul Chaval; 2·0; Thu.	.. 4·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; 5 tl; mq; lib; dp.
Amravati; 24·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 2·0	W;w.	3 Sl (2 pr, m) 2 Cs (2 c); Ganapati Fr. Bdp; Sud. 10; 7 tl, gym; lib.
Kapus Talani; ..	Local; .. Fri.	Anjanganv; 3·0	w;rv.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs (c); 2 tl; mq; dg; ch; lib; 2 Cch
Kapus Talani; 3·0	Local; .. Fri.	Anjanganv; 3·0	w;rv	tl.
Chandur; 12·0	Kurha; 7·0; Thu.	Chirodi; 4·0	W; t.	tl.
.. ..	.. .. ..	.. ..	..	..
Amravati; 13·0	Khar Taleganv; 3·0; Tue.	Ashti; 3·0	w;t.	2 Sl (pr, m); Cs; 2 tl; dp
Amravati; 18·0	Asegaon; 2·0; Wed.	.. 2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); Datta Jayanti F. Mrg. Sud. 15; gym; 4 al.
Dhamanganv; 5·0	Local; .. Fri.	. 8·0	w;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; 8 tl; 3 m; gym; lib; dp.
Amravati; 41·0	Local; .. Thu.	.. 2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl; dp.
Achalpur; 22·0	Local; .. Wed.	.. 8·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 6 tl; ch.
Pulganv; 1·0	Pulganv; 1·0; Mon.	.. 1·0	rv.	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.
Amravati; 12·0	Mahuli Jagir; 0·4; Mon.	.. ..	w.	tl.
Amravati; 25·0	Rithapur; .. Tue.	.. ..	W	

Village Name. (1)	Direction; Travelling distance. (2)	Area (Sq. ms.); Pop; Households; Agriculturists. (3)	Post Office; Distance. (4)
Yāvalī—Amt.—यावली ..	N; 15·0	6·4; 2374; 503; 1003	Local; ..
Yāvalī—Msi.—यावली ..	N; 6·0	1·9; 852; 190; 500	Dapori; 1·0
Yelakī—Acr.—येलकी ..	S; 16·0	2·0; 534; 125; 18	Uganv Purna; 1·0
Yenas—Amt.—येनस ..	S; 22·0	2·0; 900; 207; 300	Pulganv; 2·0
Yeṇī—Acr.—येणी ..	W; 6·0	0·8; 69; 16; 43	Paratvada; 4·0
Yeraḍ—Cdr.—येरड ..	S; 14·4	2·4; 1111; 265; 570	Local; ..
Yeralā—Msi.—येरला ..	SW; 2·0	4·9; 1221; 301; 542	Morshi; 1·4
Yeralī—Cdr.—येरली ..	SE; 26·0	1·7; 312; 75; 220	Mangrul; ..
Yeraṇḍagāṅv—Dyr.—येरंडगांव ..	NW; 11·0	1·4; 305; 60; 178	Varud Bk; 2·0
Yesūrṇā—Acr.—येसूर्णा ..	S; 18·0	3·3; 1271; 253; 530	Local; ..
Yevadā—Dyr.—येवदा ..	W; 8·4	18·7; 5887; 1276; 2143	Local; ..
Yevatā—Acr.—येवता ..	S; 10·0	3·4; 966; 190; 509	Raseganv; 3·0
Yevatī—Cdr.—येवती ..	S; 16·0	4·4; 1365; 335; 693	Local; ..
Yevatī—Msi.—येवती ..	S; 8·0	2·7; 591; 108; 302	Pimpalkhuta; 1·0

Railway Station; Distance. (5)		Weekly Bazar; Distance; Bazar Day. (6)		Motor Stand; Distance. (7)		Water (8)	Institutions and other information. (9)
Amravati;	15·0	Local;	.. Fri.	Local;	..	W.	3 Sl (pr, m, h); Cs; 10 tl; mq; 2 gym; lib; 2 dp.
Amravati;	38·0	Hivarkhed;	2·4; Mon.	Dapori;	2·0	W;w.	Sl (pr); pyt; 2 Cs (c); 3 tl; ch.
Achalpur;	16·0	Uganv Purna	1·0; Fri.	..	2·0	w;rv.	Sl (pr); 3 tl; m.
Chandur;	10·0	Nandganv;	2·0; Sat.	Nandganv;	3·0	W.	Sl (pr); 4 tl.
Achalpur;	6·0	Paratvada;	4·0; Thu.	Paratvada;	4·0	W,w.	tl.
Chandur;	12·0	Local;	. Fri.	Shivani-Rasulapur;	6·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 Cs (c); 3 tl.
Amravati,	32·0	Morshi;	1·4; Tue.	Stage;	0·1	W;w; n.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); 2 tl; dg.
Pargothan;	2·0	Mangrul;	5·0; Wed.	..	8·0	W;rv.	3 tl.
Banosa;	12·0	Pimpalod;	2·0; Mon.	Yewda;	3·0	W;rv.	Sl (pr); 2 tl.
Kushta Bk;	9·0	Local;	.. Mon.	..	0·2	W;rv.	3 Sl (2 pr, m), Cs (c); Muharram Ur. Ct. Sud. 8; 2 tl; mq; lib; dp
Banosa;	9·0	Local;	.. Wed.	Local;	..	w;rv.	5 Sl (2 pr, 2m, h); pyt; Cs(c); Ram Fr. Ct. Sud. 9; 12 tl; m; 3 mq; 2 dg; lib; 2 dp.
Kushta Bk;	6·0	Local;	.. Sat.	..	5·0	W;w; rv.	Sl (pr); Cs (c); tl
Chandur;	12·0	Local;	.. Wed.	..	..	W.	3 Sl (2 pr, m); Cs; 2 tl.
Amravati;	33·0	Pimpalkhuta;	1·0; Sun	..	4·0	W;w	Sl (pr); Cs; tl.

THE LIST OF DESERTED VILLAGES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT EXCLUDING FOREST AND DESERTED FOREST VILLAGES

Name of the Village

Abdullāpūr—Acr.—अब्दुल्लापूर

Abītāpūr—Amt.—अबीतापूर

Adamapūr—Cdr.—अदमपूर

Ahamadābād—Msi.—अहमदाबाद

Ahamadapūr—Msi.—अहमदपूर

Ajītapūr—Acr.—अजीतपूर

Ajitapūr—Cdr.—अजितपूर

Alipūr—Cdr.—अलिपूर

Alipūr—Dyr.—अलिपूर

Amadābād—Cdr.—अमदाबाद

Amaḍāpūr—Msi.—अमडापूर

Amadāpūr—Amt.—अमदापूर

Āmannāpūr—Amt.—आमन्नापूर

Āmbikāpūr—Cdr.—आंबिकापूर

Ambāphāṭā—Msi.—अंबाफाटा

Ambāpūr—Cdr.—अंबापूर

Ambhorī—Msi.—अंभोरी

Ambūj—Acr.—अंबुज

Aṅgatapūr—Acr.—अंगतपूर

Antaragāṅv—Acr.—अंतरगांव

Arhāḍ—Amt.—अऱ्हाड

Arjunapūr—Amt.—अर्जुनपूर

Āsonā—Msi.—आसोना

Auraṅgapūr—Acr.—औरंगपूर

Avaraṅgapūr—Acr.—अवरंगपूर

Baccharājapūr—Amt.—बच्छराजपूर

Bāg Ambāḍā—Acr.—बाग अंबाडा

Bahādarapūr—Acr.—बहादरपूर

Bahāddarapūr—Dyr.—बहाद्दरपूर

Bahādūranagar—Msi.—बहादूरनगर

Bahiramapūr—Cdr.—बहिरमपूर

Bājītapūr—Acr.—बाजीतपूर

Bakhalāpūr—Amt.—बखलापूर

Bāḷāpūr—Cdr.—बाळापूर

Baḷegāṅv—Amt.—बळेगांव

Ballārakheḍā—Amt.—बल्लारखेडा

Bansāpūr—Cdr.—बन्सापूर

Barhāṇapūr—Msi.—बऱ्हाणपूर

Belakheḍ—Msi.—बेलखेड

Name of the Village

Bhāīpūr—Msi.—भाईपूर

Bhālāpūr—Msi.—भालापूर

Bhāṇḍolī—Msi.—भांडोली

Bhaṅgārā—Msi.—भंगारा

Bharatapūr—Amt.—भरतपूर

Bhāskar (M.V.)—Cdr.—भास्कर (मु. व्य)

Bhītakheḍā—Acr.—भीतखेडा

Boṇḍevāḍī—Amt.—बोंडेवाडी

Boragāṅv—Amt.—बोरगांव

Both—Cdr.—बोथ

Cainapūr—Msi.—चैनपूर

Cakatāpūr—Cdr.—चकतापूर

Cāndapūr—Amt.—चांदपूर

Carud—Msi.—चरुड

Ciñcapūr—Msi.—चिंचपूर

Ciñcolī—Amt.—चिंचोली

Cūnakī—Amt.—चूनकी

Dābhī—Msi.—दाभी

Dādūrṇī—Cdr.—दादूर्णी

Dahātoṇḍe—Amt.—दहातोंडे

Dahigāṅv—Cdr.—दहिगांव

Dāmodar M. Karatāram—Cdr.—दामोदर मु. करताराम.

Dārakheḍā—Dyr.—दारखेडा

Dārāpūr—Acr.—दारापूर

Darārakheḍā—Amt.—दरारखेडा

Dāturā—Acr.—दातुरा

Dattājī Trimbak—Cdr.—दत्ताजी त्रिंबक

Davalatābād—Cdr.—दवलताबाद

Degāṅv—Cdr.—देगांव

Ḍegūrakheḍā—Amt.—डेगूरखेडा

Devāpūr—Acr.—देवापूर

Devaṭhāṇ—Msi.—देवठाण

Dharamapūr—Acr.—धरमपूर

Dhāravāḍī—Amt.—धारवाडी

Ḍhokātīrth—Acr.—ढोकातिर्थ

Ḍholevāḍī—Amt.—ढोलेवाडी

Divāpūr—Amt.—दिवापूर

Ḍoṅgaragāṅv—Dyr.—डोंगरगांव

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Ḍoralī—Msi.—डोरली	Isāpūr—Cdr.—इसापूर
Drugavāḍā—Acr.—द्रुगवाडा	Isāpūr—Msi.—इसापूर
Ekalārā Bhāmod—Dyr.—एकलारा भामोद	Ismāīlapūr—Msi.—इस्माईलपूर
Ekalārā Biḍ—Amt.—एकलारा बिड	Itāpūr—Amt.—इतापूर
Ekalāsapūr—Amt.—एकलासपूर	Jagadīśapūr—Cdr.—जगदीशपूर
Gajāgaḍ—Amt.—गजागड	Jahānapūr—Acr.—जहानपूर
Gaṇeśapūr—Amt.—गणेशपूर	Jahānapūr—Acr.—जहानपूर
Gaṇeśapūr—Cdr.—गणेशपूर	Jaitāpūr—Cdr.—जैतापूर
Gaṇeśapūr—Dyr.—गणेशपूर	Jāmapāṭī—Acr.—जामपाटी
Gaṅgāpūr—Amt.—गंगापूर	Jāmataḷ—Msi.—जामतळ
Gaṅgāpūr—Amt.—गंगापूर	Jāmaṭhī—Amt.—जामठी
Gaulakheḍ—Msi.—गौलखेड	Jāmaṭhī—Cdr.—जामठी
Gaulakheḍ—Msi.—गौलखेड	Jāmaṭhī—Msi.—जामठी
Gaulakheḍā—Dyr.—मौलखेडा	Jāmbhaḷā—Acr.—जांभळा
Gaurakheḍā—Acr.—गौरखेडा	Jānevāḍī—Amt.—जानेवाडी
Gavhā—Cdr.—गव्हा	Janhāpūr—Cdr.—जन्हापूर
Gāyavāḍī—Amt.—गायवाडी	Janūnā—Msi.—जनूना
Ghoḍadev Bk.—Msi.—घोडदेव बु.	Jāvarā—Acr.—जावरा
Ghoḷ—Amt.—घोळ	Jāvarā—Cdr.—जावरा
Ghuīkheḍ—Dyr.—घुईखेड	Jayamalapūr—Msi.—जयमलपूर
Gokuḷāpūr—Msi.—गोकुळापूर	Jayatāpūr—Msi.—जयतापूर
Gopāḷapūr—Msi.—गोपाळपूर	Jodhāpūr—Cdr.—जोधापूर
Govindapūr—Amt.—गोविंदपूर	Jogaravāḍī—Dyr.—जोगरवाडी
Gujaramāḷī—Msi.—गुजरमाळी	Kāḷījakheḍ—Amt.—काळीजखेड
Haibatapūr—Cdr.—हैबतपूर	Kāmatavāḍā—Acr.—कामतवाडा
Haibatapūr—Dyr.—हैबतपूर	Kāpaśī—Dyr.—कापशी
Hanumantakheḍ—Msi.—हनुमंतखेड	Karhāḍ—Msi.—कऱ्हाड
Hāśamapūr—Msi.—हाशमपूर	Karimābād—Cdr.—करिमाबाद
Hasanāpūr—Amt.—हसनापूर	Karimapūr—Acr.—करिमपूर
Hasanāpūr—Msi.—हसनापूर	Kāsamapūr—Amt.—कासमपूर
Hasāpūr—Amt.—हसापूर	Kāsīmapūr—Msi.—कासीमपूर
Hilālābād—Acr.—हीलालाबाद	Kāsīmapūr—Msi.—कासीमपूर
Hirāpūr—Amt.—हिरापूर	Kāṭavel—Dyr.—काटवेल
Hirāpūr—Cdr.—हिरापूर	Kaviṭhā Kh.—Acr.—कविठा खु.
Hirāpūr—Msi.—हिरापूर	Kekatapūr—Amt.—केकतपूर
Hivarādevī—Acr.—हिवरादेवी	Kekatavāḍā—Msi.—केकतवाडा
Humanapeṭh—Msi.—हुमनपेठ	Khalilapūr—Dyr.—खलिलपूर
Ilahābād—Amt.—इलहाबाद	Khambāḷā—Cdr.—खंबाळा
Ilahābād—Amt.—इलाहाबाद	Khānajāmābād—Acr.—खानजामाबाद
Ināpūr—Acr.—इनापूर	Khānāpūr—Acr.—खानापूर
Indalavāḍī—Dyr.—इंदलवाडी	Khānāpūr—Amt.—खानापूर
Indūr—Msi.—इंदूर	Khānāpūr—Cdr.—खानापूर
Irur—Msi.—इरूर	Khānapūr—Msi.—खानपूर
Isabapūr—Msi.—इसबपूर	Khañjīrapūr—Acr.—खंजीरपूर

Name of the Village
Khār Sāṅgaḷud—Dyr.—खार सांगळुद
Khatījāpūr—Amt.—खतीजापूर
Kheḍī Kṛṣṇāpūr—Msi.—खेडी कृष्णापूर
Khinakhīnī—Acr.—खिनखीनी
Khuśālapūr—Acr.—खुशालपूर
Khuśālapūr—Acr.—खुशालपूर
Koparā—Msi.—कोपरा
Kṛṣṇāpūr—Acr.—कृष्णापूर
Kṛṣṇāpūr—Amt.—कृष्णापूर
Kumbhīkheḍ—Msi.—कुंभीखेड
Kuṇḍī—Mlg.—कुंडी
Lasanāpūr—Cdr.—लसनापूर
Laṣkarapūr—Msi.—लष्करपूर
Londhīpūr—Dyr.—लोंधीपूर
Madārapūr—Dyr.—मदारपूर
Mahadāpūr—Amt.—महदापूर
Mahamadapūr—Acr.—महमदपूर
Mahamadapūr—Acr.—महमदपूर
Mahamadapūr Aṭakaḷī—Dyr.—महमदपूर अटकळी
Mahimāpūr—Amt.—महिमापूर
Malakāpūr—Acr.—मलकापूर
Malakāpūr—Msi.—मलकापूर
Malakāpūr Kh.—Acr.—मलकापूर खु.
Mālakheḍ—Msi.—मालखेड
Mālapūr—Amt.—मालपूर
Mālāpūr—Amt.—मालापूर
Mamadābād—Msi.—ममदाबाद
Mambāpūr—Cdr.—मंबापूर
Mānakheḍ—Amt.—मानखेड
Mānī Ardhī—Msi.—मानी अर्धी
Mirjhāpūr—Amt.—मिर्झापूर
Mirapūr—Cdr.—मिरपूर
Mohanagāṅv—Acr.—मोहनगांव
Moḷavaṇ—Msi.—मोळवण
Moḷavihīr—Msi.—मोळविहीर
Morāgnā—Msi.—मोराग्ना
Motā—Cdr.—मोता
Mubārakapūr—Cdr.—मुबारकपूर
Mulphatābād—Dyr.—मुल्फताबाद
Munāīmapūr—Msi.—मुनाईमपूर
Muṇḍabārī—Amt.—मुंडबारी
Muṇḍ Ḍāph Ambāpūr—Cdr.—मुंड डाफ अंबापूर
Muṇḍ Dhān—Amt.—मुंड धान
Muṇḍ Gurav—Amt.—मुंड गुरव
Muṇḍ Hindu Gurav—Amt.—मुंड हिंदु गुरव
Muṇḍ Jhuñjhārarāv—Amt.—मुंड झुंझारराव
Muṇḍ Nārāyaṇ—Amt.—मुंड नारायण
Murādapūr—Acr.—मुरादपूर
Mustaphāpūr—Dyr.—मुस्तफापूर
Nabīpūr—Msi.—नबीपूर
Nāgapūr—Amt.—नागपूर
Nāgaravāḍī—Msi.—नागरवाडी
Nāigāṅv—Msi.—नायगांव
Najarapūr—Msi.—नजरपूर
Nāmāpūr—Msi.—नामापूर
Nārāyaṇpūr—Acr.—नारायणपूर
Nārāyaṇpūr—Amt.—नारायणपूर
Nārāyaṇpūr—Amt.—नारायणपूर
Navabāg Jahāgīr—Acr.—नवबाग जहागीर
Nematāpūr—Amt.—नेमतापूर
Nimakheḍā—Acr.—निमखेडा
Paḷasavāḍā—Acr.—पळसवाडा
Pāñc Āmbā Bk.—Acr.—पांच आंबा बु.
Pāñc Āmbā Kh.—Acr.—पांच आंबा खु.
Paṇḍharapūr—Amt.—पंढरपूर
Pārḍī—Acr.—पार्डी
Paṭhāṇāpūr—Cdr.—पठाणपूर
Pimpaḷavihīr—Msi.—पिंपळविहीर
Pimprī—Amt.—पिंप्री
Piṭhoḍā—Acr.—पिठोडा
Rāgaḍagāṅv—Msi.—रगडगांव
Raghunāthapūr M. K.—Cdr.—रघुनाथपूर म. खु.
Rahāṭagāṅv—Acr.—रहाटगांव
Rahimābād—Cdr.—रहिमाबाद
Rahimāpūr—Acr.—रहिमापूर
Rāipūr—Acr.—रायपूर
Rājāpūr—Dyr.—राजापूर
Rājegāṅv—Amt.—राजेगांव
Rajhākapūr—Acr.—रझाकपूर
Rājurā—Acr.—राजूरा
Ramadalapūr—Msi.—रमदलपूर
Rāmāpūr—Acr.—रामापूर
Rāmapūr—Amt.—रामपूर
Rāmāpūr—Msi.—रामापूर
Raṇabājapūr—Cdr.—रणबाजपूर
Rasidapūr—Acr.—रसिदपूर
Rasulapūr—Cdr.—रसुलपूर
Rasulapūr—Msi.—रसुलपूर

Name of the Village
Rasulapūr Belakheḍ—Msi.—रसुलपूर बेलखेड
Rasulapūr Koparā—Msi.—रसुलपूर कोपरा
Ratnāpūr—Acr.—रत्नापूर
Ravandalpur—Dyr.—रवंदलपुर.
Rāyanī—Acr.—रायनी
Rodorī—Acr.—रोदोरी
Rohanāḷ—Msi.—रोहनाळ
Rustamapūr—Amt.—रूस्तमपूर
Sadātapūr—Msi.—सदातपूर
Śahānavājapūr—Msi.—शहानवाजपूर
Śahāpūr—Msi.—शहापूर
Saidapūr—Acr.—सैदपूर
Sākharī Cikhalapāṭī—Mlg.—साखरी चिखलपाटी
Salābatapūr—Acr.—सलाबतपूर
Salābatapūr—Cdr.—सलाबतपूर
Sālepūr—Msi.—सालेपूर
Samaśerapūr—Cdr.—समशेरपूर
Samaśerapūr—Cdr.—समशेरपूर
Sambhāpūr—Msi.—संभापूर
Sambhegāṅv—Amt.—संभेगांव
Sāṅgavī-Nijāmapūr—Acr.—सांगवी-निजामपूर
Sāñjāpūr—Acr.—सांजापूर
Sarahalanapūr—Amt.—सरहलनपूर
Saramastāpūr—Amt.—सरमस्तापूर
Sarāy—Dyr.—सराय
Sāvarakheḍ—Msi.—सावरखेड
Śekāpūr—Msi.—शेकापूर
Śerapūr—Amt.—शेरपूर
Śikandarapūr—Dyr.—शिकंदरपूर
Silīmapūr—Msi.—सिलीमपूर
Śivapurī—Msi.—शिवपुरी
Somaṭhāṇā—Acr.—सोमठाणा
Sonagāṅv—Msi.—सोनगांव
Sujātapūr—Cdr.—सुजातपूर
Sulatānapūr—Acr.—सुलतानपूर
Sulatānapūr—Amt.—सुलतानपूर
Sulatānapūr—Msi.—सुलतानपूर
Sundarapūr—Acr.—सुंदरपूर
Supāḷā—Msi.—सुपाळा
Ṭākuḷī—Cdr.—टाकळी
Talakhaṇḍā—Amt.—तलखंडा
Ṭekaḍā Nāgajhirā—Mlg.—टेकडा नागझिरा
Ṭembhī—Msi.—टेंभी
Theṭakheḍā—Amt.—थेटखेडा
Tiramalpūr—Acr.—तिरमलपूर
Trimalapūr—Msi.—त्रिमलपूर
Tuḷajāpūr—Amt.—तुळजापूर
Tuḷajāpūr—Amt.—तुळजापूर
Tuḷajāpūr—Msi.—तुळजापूर
Tuḷajāpūr—Msi.—तुळजापूर
Udāpūr—Acr.—उदापूर
Umarī—Acr.—उमरी
Vāḍhoṇā—Msi.—वाढोणा
Vaḍurā—Acr.—वडुरा
Vaḍurā—Cdr.—वडुरा
Vāgadā—Cdr.—वागदा
Vāgholī—Acr.—वाघोली
Vajrādevī—Cdr.—वज्रादेवी
Vāḷakī—Amt.—वाळकी
Varuḍ—Cdr.—वरूड
Viñcorī—Cdr.—विंचोरी
Virakheḍā—Acr.—विरखेडा
Viṣṇorā—Cdr.—विष्णोरा
Viṭalāpūr—Acr.—विटलापूर
Viṭhalāpūr—Acr.—विठलापूर
Viṭṭhalāpūr—Amt.—विठ्ठलापूर
Viṭṭhalapūr—Msi.—विठ्ठलपूर
Yadalābād—Cdr.—यदलाबाद
Yādavapūr—Msi.—यादवपूर
Yeraṇḍavāḍī—Msi.—येरंडवाडी

LIST OF FOREST VILLAGES INCLUDING THOSE WHICH ARE DESERTED FOREST VILLAGES, AMRAVATI DISTRICT

Name of the Village

Āḍanadī—Mlg.—आडनदी
Āḍhāv—Mlg.—आढाव
Ahaḍ—Mlg.—अहड
Ālāḍoh—Mlg.—आलाडोह
Āmjhirī—Mlg.—आमझिरी
Āmonā—Mlg.—आमोना
Asalavāḍā—Mlg.—Deserted असलवाडा (ओसाड)
Āvagaḍ—Mlg.—आवगड
Baḍapānī—Mlg.—बडपानी
Bāgaliṅg—Mlg.—बागलिंग
Bairāṭ—Mlg.—बैराट
Bārātāṇḍā—Mlg.—बारातांडा
Bārukheḍā—Mlg.—बारूखेडा
Bāvaḍī—Mlg.—Deserted बावडी (ओसाड)
Behālī—Mlg.—बेहाली
Belā—Mlg.—बेला
Bhāndrī—Mlg.—भांद्री
Bhāṇḍūm—Mlg.—भांडूम
Bhāṇḍūm—Mlg.—भांडूम
Bhavaī—Mlg.—भवई
Bhilakheḍā—Mlg.—भिलखेडा
Bhirojā—Mlg.—भिरोजा
Bhoṇḍīlāvā—Mlg.—भोंडीलावा
Bhulorī—Mlg.—भुलोरी
Bibā—Mlg.—बिबा
Bilū—Mlg.—Deserted बिलू (ओसाड)
Biroṭī—Mlg.—बिरोटी
Boḍū—Mlg.—बोडू
Boradhā—Mlg.—बोरधा
Borī—Mlg.—बोरी
Borī—Mlg.—बोरी
Borī—Mlg.—Deserted बोरी (ओसाड)
Borugavhāṇ—Mlg.—बोरूगव्हाण
Botharā—Mlg.—बोथरा
Boṭīdā—Mlg.—बोटीदा
Boṭīdā—Mlg.—Deserted बोटीदा (ओसाड)
Bulūmagavhān—Mlg.—Deserted बुलूमगव्हान (ओसाड).
Buṭharum—Mlg.—बुथरुम

Name of the Village

Caurākuṇḍ—Mlg.—चौराकुंड
Cethar—Mlg.—चेथर
Cikhalī—Mlg.—चिखली
Cilāṭīyā—Mlg.—चिलाटीया
Ciñcaghāṭ—Mlg.—चिंचघाट
Citharī—Mlg.—Deserted चिथरी (ओसाड)
Copan—Mlg.—Deserted चोपन (ओसाड)
Covitā—Mlg.—चोविता
Cunakhaḍī—Mlg.—चुनखडी
Curnī—Mlg.—चुर्नी
Dābitākheḍā—Mlg.—दाबिताखेडा
Devagirī—Amt.—Deserted देवगिरी (ओसाड)
Ḍhākarā—Mlg.—ढाकना
Dhāragaḍ—Mlg.—धारगड
Ḍhomanī Pāṭhā—Mlg.—ढोमनी पाठा
Ḍolār—Mlg.—डोलार
Ḍolār—Mlg.—Deserted डोलार (ओसाड)
Ḍolār—Mlg.—Deserted डोलार (ओसाड)
Ḍomī—Mlg.—डोमी
Dudhānī—Mlg.—Deserted दुधानी (ओसाड)
Ekatāī—Mlg.—एकताई
Gāḍagā Bhāṇḍūm—Mlg.—गाडगा भांडूम
Ghānā—Mlg.—घाना
Ghaṭāṅg—Mlg.—घटांग
Ghokaḍā—Mlg.—घोकडा
Golāī—Mlg.—गोलाई
Govindapūr—Amt.—गोविंदपूर
Gullaraghāṭ—Mlg.—Deserted गुल्लरघाट (ओसाड)
Harīsāl—Mlg.—हरीसाल
Hatanāḍā—Mlg.—हतनाडा
Hātaru—Mlg.—हातरु
Hattīghāṭ—Mlg.—हत्तीघाट
Hilaḍā—Mlg.—हिल्डा
Hiraḍāmal—Mlg.—हिरडामल
Jaitādehī—Mlg.—जैतादेही
Jāmalī—Mlg.—जामली
Jāmapānī—Mlg.—जामपानी
Jāmunāḷā—Mlg.—जामुनाळा
Jārodā—Mlg.—जारोदा

Name of the Village

Javāhar Kuṇḍ—Mlg.—Deserted जवाहूर कुंड (ओसाड).
Jhiṅgāpūr—Mlg.—झिंगापूर
Kākadarī—Mlg.—काकदरी
Kāmāpūr—Mlg.—कामापूर
Kāmidā—Mlg.—कामिदा
Kārañj—Mlg.—कारंज
Kasāīpūr—Mlg.—कसाईपूर
Kāṭakumbh—Mlg.—Deserted काटकुंभ (ओसाड).
Kāvarā Jhīrī—Mlg.—Deserted कावरा झीरी (ओसाड).
Kelāpanī—Mlg.—केलापनी
Kelī—Mlg.—केली
Khāḍīmal—Mlg.—खाडीमल
Khaṇḍukheḍā—Mlg.—खंडुखेडा
Khārī—Mlg.—खारी
Khaṭakālī— Mlg.—खटकाली
Khaṭakālī—Mlg.—खटकाली
Khirakī—Mlg.—Deserted खिरकी (ओसाड)
Khirapānī—Mlg.—खिरपानी
Khoṅgaḍā—Mlg —खोंगडा
Kohā—Mlg.—कोहा
Kohanā—Mlg.—कोहना
Kokamāī—Mlg.—कोकमार
Kuhī—Mlg.—कुही
Kuṇḍ—Mlg.—कुंड
Kuṇḍ—Mlg. —कुंड
Kuṭūmbīkheḍā—Mlg.— Deserted कुटूंबीखेडा (ओसाड).
Lākhārā—Msi.—लाखारा
Lākhevārā—Mlg.—Deserted लाखेवारा (ओसाड)
Lavādā—Mlg.—लवादा
Lavādā (Besr)—Mlg.—लवादा (बेस्ट)
Lonājharī—Mlg.—Deserted लोनाझरी (ओसाड)
Maḍakī—Mlg.—मडकी
Madhalābād—Amt.—Deserted मधलाबाद (ओसाड).
Mākhalā—Mlg.—माखला
Mālūr—Mlg.—मालूर
Manabhaṅg—Mlg.—मनभंग
Māṅgiyā—Mlg.—मांगिया
Marāvanī—Mlg.—Deserted मरावनी (ओसाड)
Mārījharap—Mlg.—मारीझरप

Name of the Village

Maritākheḍā—Mlg.—मरिताखेडा
Mariyām—Mlg.—मरियाम
Māsoṇḍī—Mlg.— मासोंडी
Memanā—Mlg.—मेमना
Menaghāṭ—Mlg.— मेनघाट
Mojharī—Mlg.— मोझरी
Mothā—Mlg.— मोथा
Nāgar Tās- Mlg.— नागर तास
Nilathūm—Mlg.—Deserted निलथूम (ओसाड)
Palasapānī—Mlg.—Deserted पलसपानी (ओसाड)
Pāṇḍharā Khaḍak—Mlg.—पांढरा खडक
Pastalāī—Mlg.— पसतलाई
Pāṭakahū—Mlg.— पाटकहू
Pilī—Mlg.—पिली
Pimparī Kheḍā—Mlg.—पिंपरी खेडा
Pipādarī—Mlg.—Deserted पिपादरी (ओसाड)
Pipalīyā—Mlg.—पिपलीया
Pirakheḍā—Mlg.— Deserted पिरखेडा (ओसाड)
Rahīṭā Kheḍā—Mlg.—रहीटा खेडा
Rāhū—Mlg.— राहू
Rāipūr—Mlg.— रायपूर
Rakṣā—Mlg.—Deserted रक्षा (ओसाड)
Raṅgubelī—Mlg.— रंगुबेली
Rehaṭiyā—Mlg.— रेहटीया
Rorā—Mlg.— रोरा
Ruīpaṭhār—Mlg.— रूईपठार
Śahāpūr—Mlg.— शहापूर
Salāī Barḍī—Mlg.—Deserted सलाई बर्डी (ओसाड)
Salītā Kheḍā—Mlg —Deserted सलीता खेडा (ओसाड).
Salonā—Mlg.— सलोना
Sāvarapānī—Mlg.— सावरपानी
Sāvaryā—Mlg.— सावऱ्या
Śekadarī—Msi.— शेकदरी
Semāḍoh—Mlg.—सेमाडोह
Simorī—Mlg.— सिमोरी
Sirasaband—Mlg.—Deserted सिरसबंद (ओसाड)
Śivājharī—Mlg.—Deserted शिवाझरी (ओसाड)
Sivanapānī—Mlg.—Deserted सिवनपानी (ओसाड).
Somaṭhāṇā Bk.—Mlg.—Deserted सोमठाणा बु. (ओसाड).
Somaṭhāṇā Kh.—Mlg.—सोमठाणा खु.
Somavār Kheḍā—Mlg.—सोमवार खेडा

Name of the Village	Name of the Village
Sumītā—Mlg.— सुमीता	Tembaru—Mlg.— टेंबरु
Ṭākaḍā—Mlg.— Deserted टाकडा (ओसाड)	Tembharukheḍā—Mlg.— टेंभरुखेडा
Ṭalāī—Mlg.— तलाई	Ṭeṭū—Mlg.— Deserted टेटू (ओसाड)
Ṭāṅgaḍā—Mlg.— टांगडा	Ṭoṅgalaphoḍī—Mlg.—Deserted टोंगलफोडी (ओसाड).
Tārubāndā—Mlg.— तारुबांदा	

APPENDIX

CONVERSION FACTORS

LENGTH :

1 inch = 2·54 centimetres
1 foot = 30·48 centimetres
1 yard = 91·44 centimetres
1 mile = 1·61 kilometres
1 nautical mile (U. K.) = 1853·18 metres
1 nautical mile (international) = 1852 metres

AREA :

1 square foot = 0·093 square metre
1 square yard = 0·836 square metre
1 acre = 0·405 hectare

VOLUME :

1 cubic foot = 0·023 cubic metre

CAPACITY :

1 gallon (Imperial) = 4·55 litres
1 seer (80 tolas) = 0·937 litre
1 Madras measure = 1·77 litres

WEIGHT :

1 tola = 11·66 grams
1 chhatak = 58·32 grams
1 seer = 933·10 grams
1 maund = 37·32 kilograms
1 palam = 34·99 grams
1 seer (24 tolas) = 279·93 grams
1 viss = 1·40 kilograms
1 maund (Madras) = 11·20 kilograms
1 candy = 223·94 kilograms
1 ounce = 28·35 grams
1 pound = 453·59 grams
1 hundredweight = 50·80 kilograms
1 ton = 1016·05 kilograms

TEMPERATURE :

T° Fahrenheit = 9/5 (T° centigrade) + 32

METRIC WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

LENGTH :

10 millimetres = 1 centimetre
100 centimetres = 1 metre
1000 metres = 1 kilometre
1852 metres = 1 nautical mile (International)

AREA :

100 square millimetres = 1 square centimetre
10,000 square centimetres = 1 square metre or centiare
100 square metres = 1 are
100 ares = 1 hectare
100 hectares or 1,000,000 square metres = 1 square kilometre

VOLUME :

1,000,000 cubic centimetres = 1 cubic metre

CAPACITY :

1000 millilitres = 1 litre
1000 litres = 1 kilolitre

WEIGHTS :

1000 milligrams = 1 gram
1000 grams = 1 kilogram
100 kilograms = 1 quintal
1000 kilograms = 1 tonne
200 milligrams = 1 carat

ABBREVIATIONS FOR METRIC UNITS

(1) DECIMAL MULTIPLES AND SUBMULTIPLES :

Prefix		Value in terms of Unit	Abbreviation
kilo	..	1000	k
centi	..	0·01 (10^{-2})	c
milli	..	0·001 (10^{-3})	m
micro	..	0·000001 (10^{-6})	u

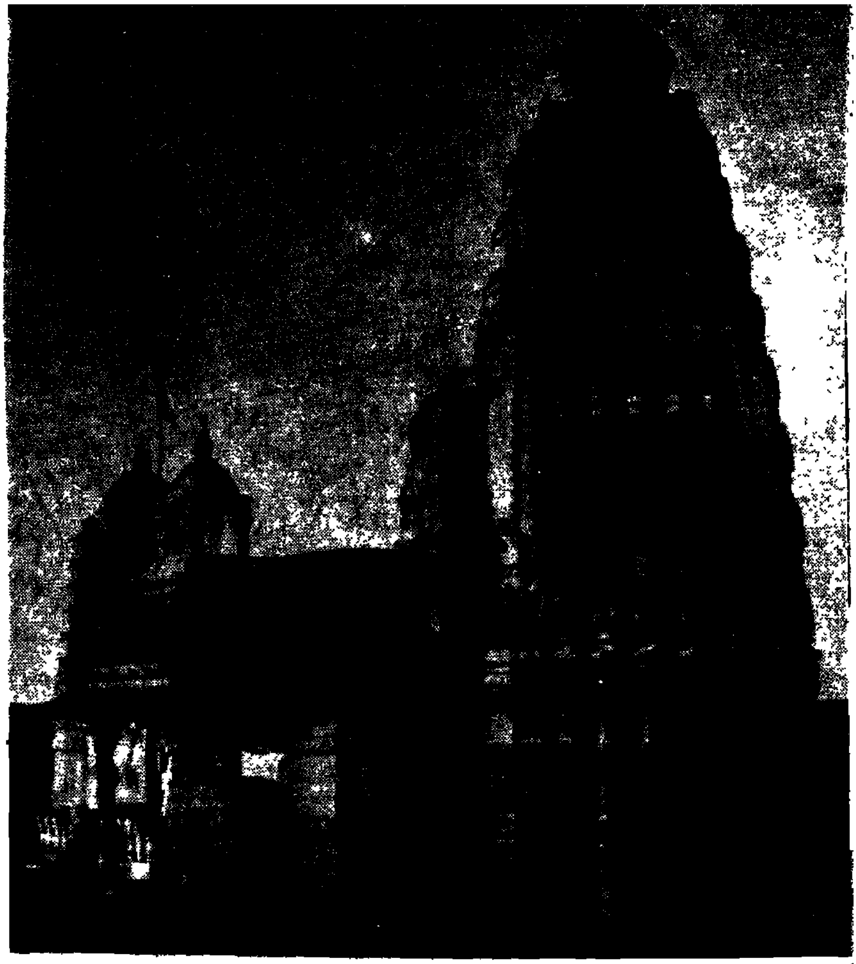
(2) WEIGHTS :

Denomination		Value	Abbreviation
tonne	..	1000 kg	t
quintal	..	100 kg	q
kilogram	..	1 kg	kg
gram	..	1 g	g
milligram	..	1 mg	mg
carat	..	200 mg	c
(3) CAPACITY :			
kilolitre	..	1000 l	kl
litre	..	1 l	l
millilitre	..	1 ml	ml
(4) VOLUME :			
cubic centimetre	..	cm^3	cm^3
cubic millimetre	..	mm^3	mm^3
(5) LENGTH :			
kilometre	..	1000 m	km
metre	..	1 m	m
centimetre	..	1 cm	cm
millimetre	..	1 mm	mm
micron	..	1/1000 mm or 10^{-3} mm	um

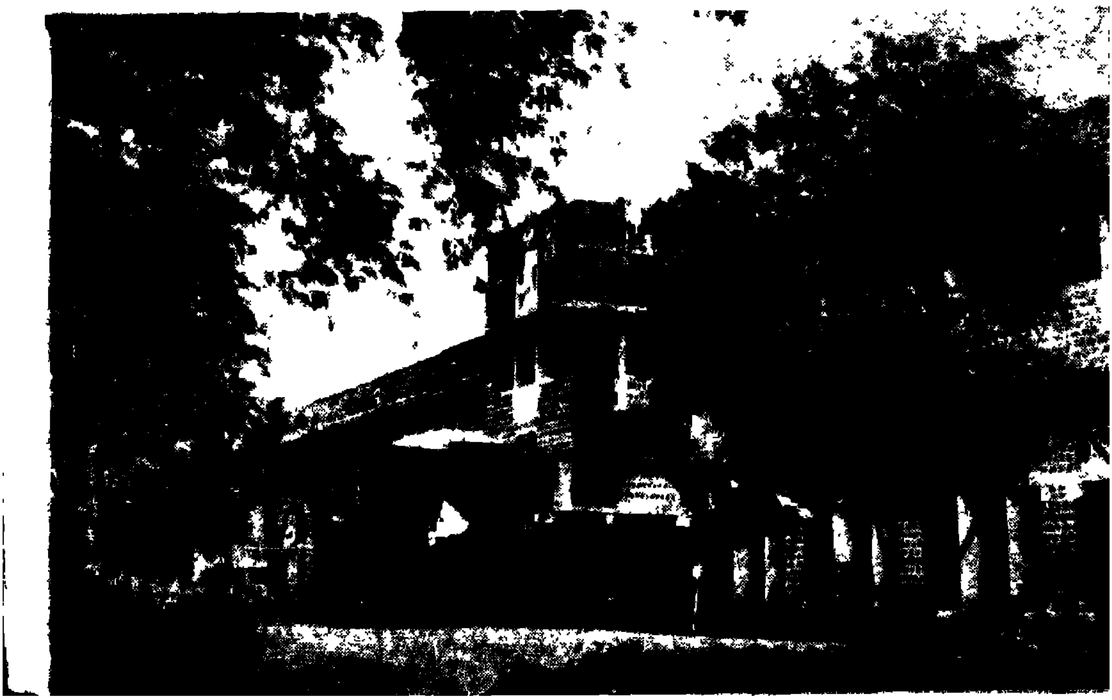
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Denomination		Value	Abbreviation
(6) AREA :			
square kilometres	..	1,000,000 m^2	km^2
square metre	..	1 m^2	m^2
square centimetre	..	1 cm^2	cm^2
square millimetre	..	1 mm^2	mm^2
(7) LAND MEASURE :			
are	..	100 m^2	a
hectare	..	100 a	ha
centiare	..	m^2	ca

Mahadeo Temple also known as Khandeshwar temple at Nandgaon Khandeshwar 30 miles from Amraoti perhaps belonging to 14th Century



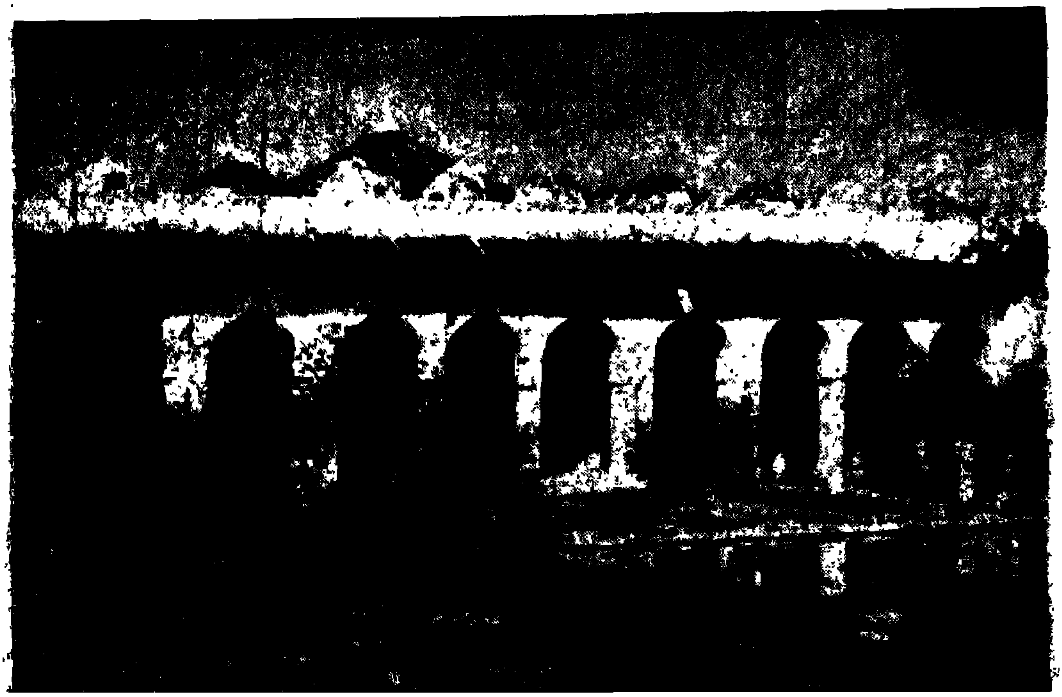
Vidarbha Mahavidyalaya Amravati





General view
Chikhalda

Jamme Mosque
Achalpur







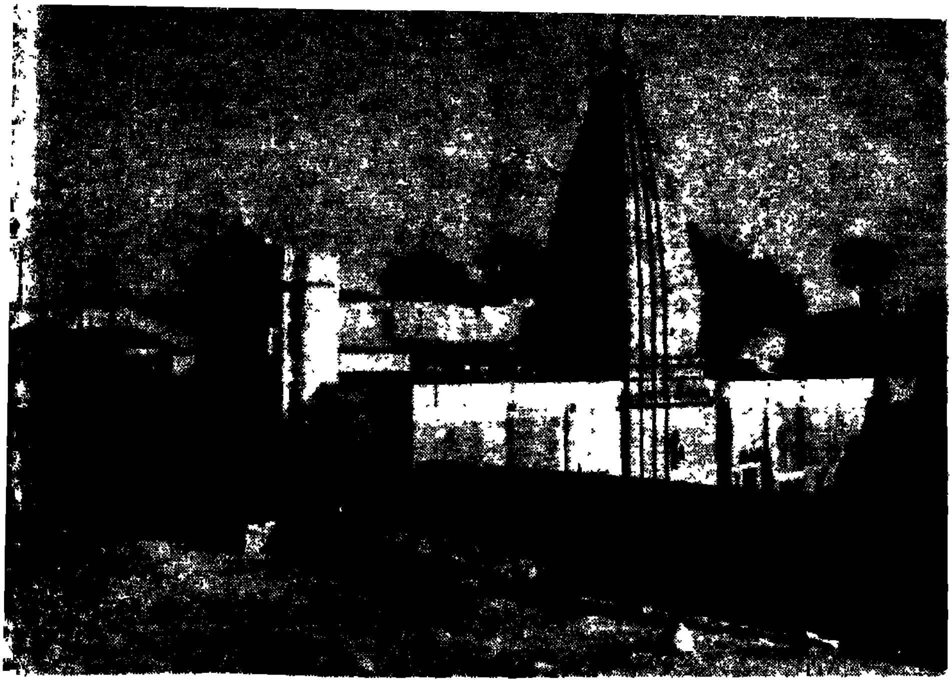
Idgah of Ahmadshah
Achalpur



Amba Gate Amravati

Gawil Garh Fort at Chikhalda





Mahanubhav Temple
Ridhapur

Ambadevi Temple
Amravati



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R—*cont.*

PAGES

T—*cont.*

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